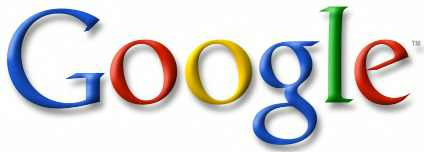
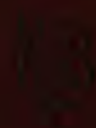


Harper's Language Series

ENGLISH GRAMMAR

SWINTON.



ENGLISH CLASSICS.

EDITED, WITH NOTES,

By WM. J. ROLFE, A.M.

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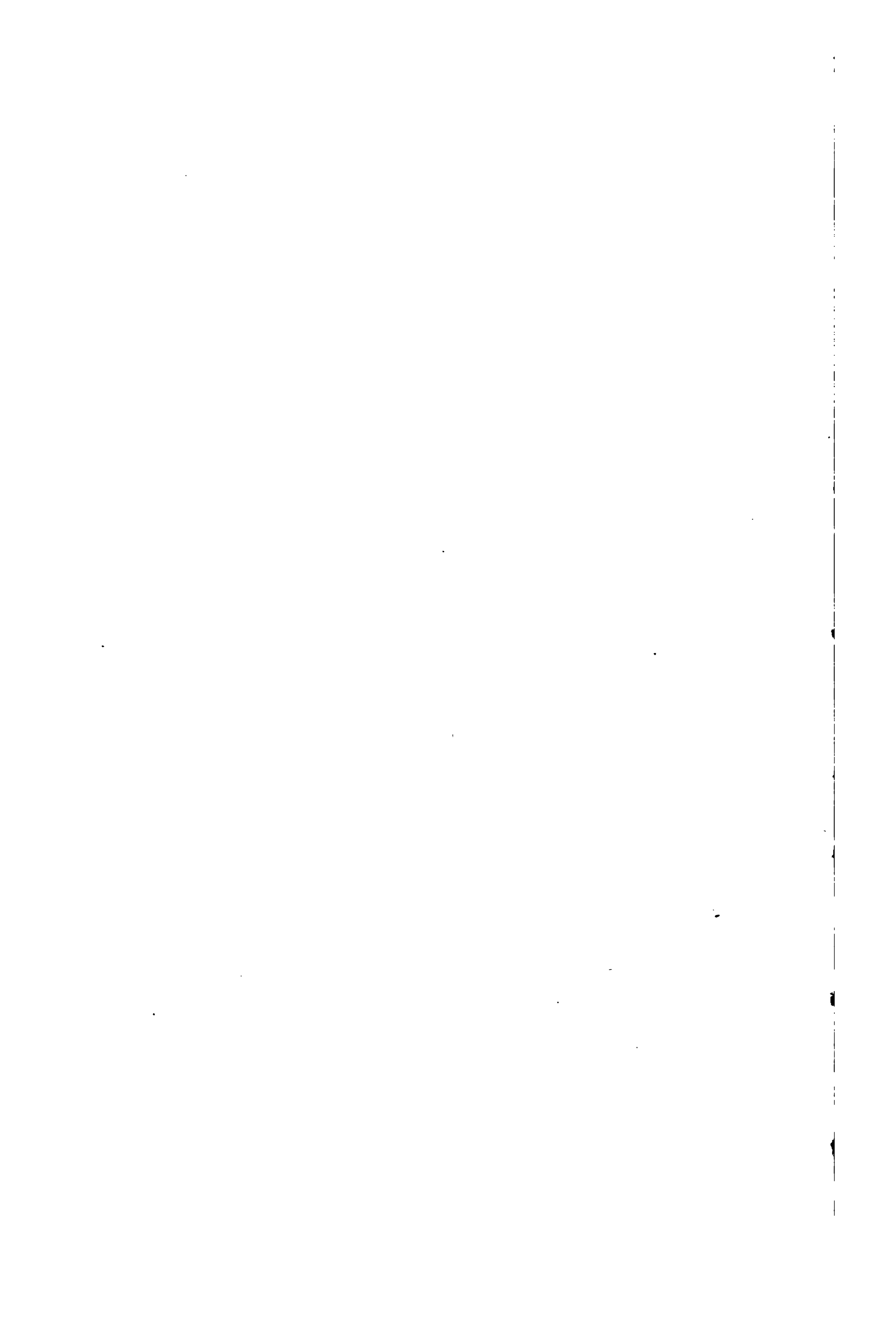
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A

GRAMMAR

CONTAINING THE

ETYMOLOGY AND SYNTAX

OF

THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE.

FOR ADVANCED GRAMMAR GRADES, AND FOR HIGH SCHOOLS, ACADEMIES, ETC.

BY WILLIAM SWINTON,

AUTHOR OF "HARPER'S LANGUAGE SERIES," "BIBLE WORD-BOOK," ETC.



NEW YORK:

HARPER & BROTHERS, PUBLISHERS,

FRANKLIN SQUARE.

1886.

PREFACE.

THIS text-book of English Grammar forms the advanced manual of Harper's "New Language Series," and is designed for study in connection with the author's *New School Composition.** In a graded course on the English language it is intended to fill the place of the book known as the *Progressive Grammar.* That, in such a course, it will fill that place in a manner more satisfactory than the work just named may reasonably be hoped from the considerations adduced in the following paragraphs.

At the time when the *Progressive Grammar* was first published (1872), it had become a conviction in the minds of many thoughtful teachers and others that English grammar, as set forth in books and taught in schools, was failing to accomplish its avowed end, namely, "to teach the art of speaking and writing the English language with propriety." The *Progressive Grammar* was an attempt to break loose from the shackles of purely technical grammar—to strip it of fruitless formalism, and to introduce the constructive element. It may be remarked that the author's views did not then extend beyond that *one* book. Soon after, however, the experience of the school-room led the author to believe—as a like experience was leading many others to believe—that a method of language-

* Both treatises may be had bound in one volume, under the title "Swinton's English Grammar and Composition."

training quite different from that mainly in vogue was necessary: there arose, in fact, the thought of *language* as one thing, and of *grammar* as another thing; and in this view it seemed that a suitable apparatus of elementary instruction was yet to be supplied. This conviction took shape in the books known as *Language Primer*, *Language Lessons*, and *School Composition*.

In the meantime, contemporaneously with the appearance of the successive books of the "Language Series," there came about a broadening and readjustment of the scheme of language-study in the public schools. The necessity of a progressive and graduated course of training in the mother-tongue, extending over some years, and beginning in practice and ending in theory, is now generally recognized and acted on; so that, a considerable uniformity in the programme and method of English study being attained, it seems possible to adapt our book-apparatus to the work to be done in our schools.

It is with the view of accomplishing this purpose that a thorough remodelling of Harper's "Language Series" has been made. It is thought that the books now form a closely connected series, embodying a progressive course of development, the outline of which may be thus set forth:

1. LANGUAGE PRIMER—mainly *practice*.
2. NEW LANGUAGE LESSONS—*theory* and *practice* (i. e., grammar and composition) in about equal proportion.
3. { NEW ENGLISH GRAMMAR, NEW SCHOOL COMPOSITION— } the two studies differentiated, but simultaneously pursued.

In the remodelled series, the present text-book forms the *Grammar*, pure and simple. It presupposes a certain amount of previous training in the theory and practice of English—presupposes, at least, the amount of knowledge obtainable from Swinton's *Language Lessons*, or from a similar book; and its specific place in the cur-

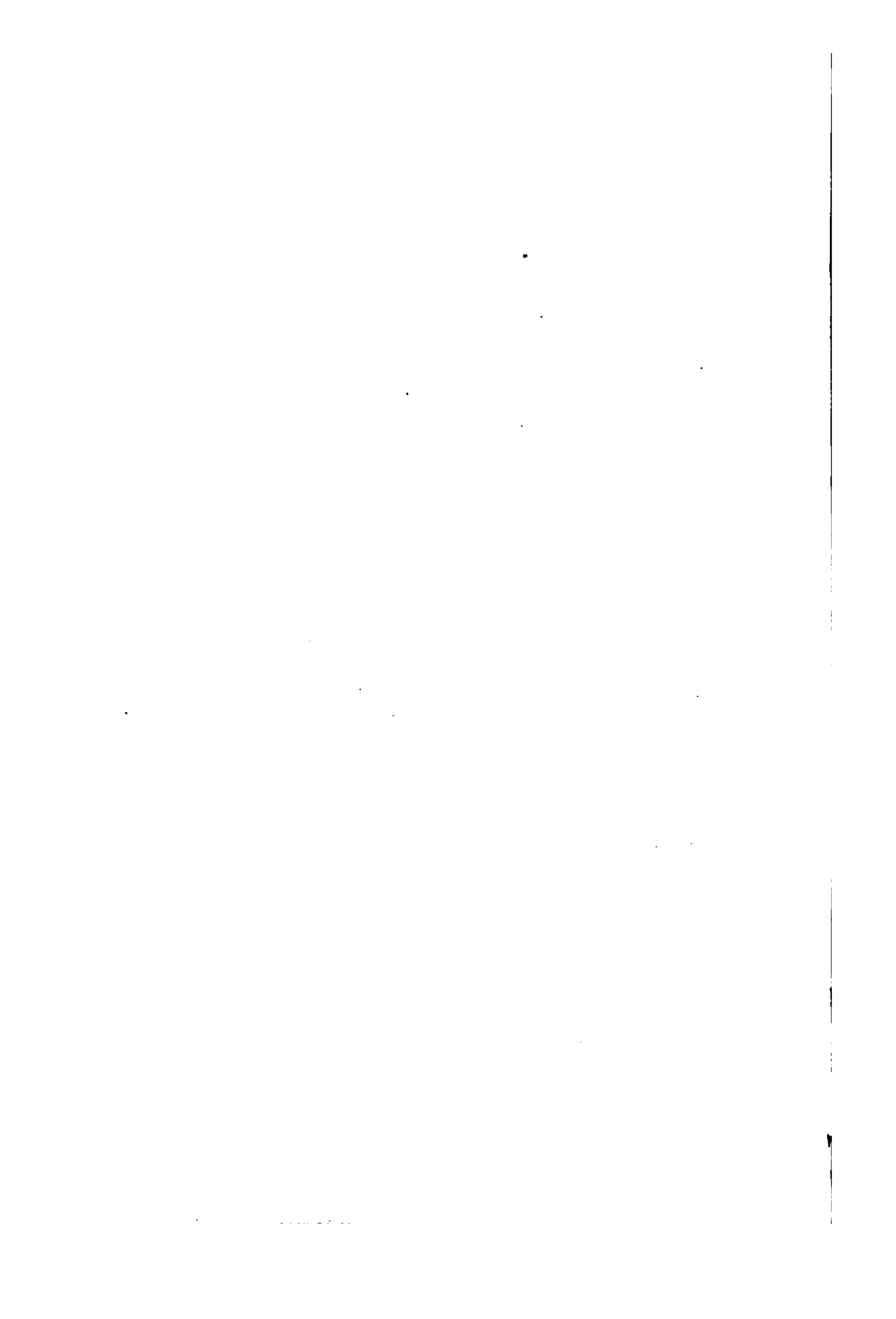
riculum is to be found in the advanced grammar grades of our public schools, though the book is also suited to the wants of high schools and academies. It is earnestly recommended that the Grammar be taken in connection with the *School Composition*,—the author's ideal of the distribution of study being: three grammar lessons and two composition lessons per week.

The method and the matter of the book are both so obvious that teachers will discover its scope and character by simply turning over the leaves: hence no detailed exhibit of the plan seems to be called for here. The author would state in a single sentence that his aim has been to set forth, in the light of the latest linguistic scholarship, the etymology and the syntax of the English language—to make a logical, systematic, and well-ordered presentation of this great subject, with a view both to intellectual development, or wit-sharpening, and to the attainment of a fair mastery of the art of speaking and writing our tongue. Very great care has been taken to make it a *working* class-book; and particular attention is called to the summaries, topical analyses, and written reviews. For the higher study of English, in its historical and comparative aspects, a good amount of material will be found in the Appendix, pages 237–252.

In the preparation of this text-book the author has handled several hundred English grammars, all of which have been suggestive in one way or other. He must, however, acknowledge his indebtedness throughout to the great German works of Maetzner and of Koch, and to the English grammars of Morris, Ernest Adams, Bain, Mulligan, and Mason. It will perhaps not be amiss to credit to these storehouses all that is best in the *material* of this text-book; its *architecture* the author claims as his own.

WILLIAM SWINTON.

NEW YORK, *August*, 1877.



the

for

ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

INTRODUCTION.

1. Language is the expression of thought by means of spoken or written words.

2. Grammar is the science that treats of the principles of language.

Some principles are common to all languages, and these principles form the science of general grammar; but as the several languages differ widely, it is necessary to have a special grammar for each. Hence *French* grammar, *German* grammar, *English* grammar, etc.

3. English grammar is the science that treats of the principles of the English language.

Its *use*, or *end*, is to teach the art of speaking and writing the English language correctly.

As a science	Explains the structure of the language	=THEORY.
As an art	Lays down rules for its correct use	=PRACTICE.

4. Words and Sentences.—Language consists of *words* arranged in *sentences*.

I. A **word** is a significant sound or combination of sounds. It may be represented by a written character or combination of characters.

II. A **sentence** is a combination of words expressing a complete thought, and conveying an assertion, a question, a command, or a wish: as, (1) He comes. (2) Does he come? (3) Let him come. (4) O that he would come!

5. Divisions of Grammar. — Language is composed of *sentences*, and sentences are made up of *words:* hence arise the two principal divisions of English grammar: namely, *etymology*—treating of words by themselves; and *syntax*—treating of words combined in sentences.

NOTES.

I. The common division of English grammar has been into four parts — *orthography*, *etymology*, *syntax*, and *prosody*, the offices of which are usually thus defined:

Orthography treats of letters, syllables, separate words, and spelling.
Etymology treats of the different parts of speech, with their derivation and modifications.
Syntax treats of the relation, agreement, government, and arrangement of words in sentences.
Prosody treats of punctuation, utterance, figures, and versification.

II. A strict analysis of language-study considerably narrows the scope of grammar, by assigning to more appropriate places several of the kinds of knowledge vaguely included in grammatical science.

Thus *orthography* (together with "utterance," i. e. *orthoepy*) forms the subject-matter of special manuals of spelling, and is to be learned from these and from the dictionary. *Prosody* is a branch of rhetoric, or English composition. The *derivation of words* (historical etymology) does not properly belong to grammar, but is to be studied in text-books of etymology, or word-analysis.

III. It thus appears that grammar, in its strict sense, is limited to two departments of language-study; namely, *grammatical etymology*, or accidence, and *syntax*—the former treating of the classification and grammatical forms of words, the latter treating of the principles and usages relating to the combination of words in speech.

SECTION I.

ETYMOLOGY.

CHAPTER I.

CLASSIFICATION AND FORMS.

6. Definition.—Etymology is that division of grammar which treats of the *classification* and *grammatical forms* of words. (See § 9.)

7. Parts of Speech.—Words are arranged in classes according to their use in sentences; and these classes, eight in number, are called the *parts of speech*. ("Speech" = *language*.)

8. The parts of speech are—

1. **Noun.**
2. **Pronoun.**
3. **Adjective.**
4. **Verb.**
5. **Adverb.**
6. **Preposition.**
7. **Conjunction.**
8. **Interjection.**

9. A grammatical form is a mode of denoting some property belonging to a part of speech.

Thus *number*, a mode of denoting one or more than one, is a grammatical form of the noun. (*Book—books*.) *Tense*, a mode of denoting time, is a grammatical form of the verb. (*Walk—walk*ed.) *Comparison*, a mode of denoting degrees of a quality, is a grammatical form of the adjective. (*Long—long*er.)

10. The grammatical forms of the parts of speech are as follows:

1. **Number**—a property of nouns, pronouns, and verbs.
2. **Gender**—a property of nouns and pronouns.
3. **Case**—a property of nouns and pronouns.
4. **Person**—a property of nouns, pronouns, and verbs.
5. **Voice**—a property of verbs.
6. **Mood**—a property of verbs.
7. **Tense**—a property of verbs.
8. **Comparison**—a property of adjectives and adverbs.

11. A grammatical form is variously denoted: namely—

1. By **inflection**, or a change in the ending of a word.

Thus, in *boys*, **s** is an inflection or suffix to denote the grammatical form *number*. So **ed** in *walked* is an inflection to denote the grammatical form *tense;* and **er** in *longer* is an inflection to denote the grammatical form *comparison.*

An *inflected word* is one that has, or may have, a grammatical suffix.*

2. By **radical change**; that is, by the change of a vowel in the root word:† as, *man*, *men ; write*, *wrote.*
3. By an **auxiliary term**; that is, by the use of a separate helping word joined with the word to be modified in meaning: as *shall* in "I *shall* love," to denote the future tense; *more* in "*more* fortunate," to denote the comparative degree.
4. By **grammatical relation**; that is, by a special use of a word in a sentence. This frequently determines the grammatical form of a word when there is no visible indication of its form.

Thus "boy" in "The *boy* flies his kite" is in what is called the *nominative case*, because it is the subject of the verb "flies;" whereas in "The dog bit the *boy*" it is in the *objective case*, because it is the object of the verb "bit."

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* A *grammatical suffix* is to be distinguished from an ordinary suffix; that is, a letter or syllable added to the termination of a word to form a derivative word, as *ful* in helpful, *er* in teacher. The former merely changes the meaning of the word a little; the latter makes an entirely new word.

† The "root," or "root word," is the primitive word—the word in its simplest form, before any change in it has been made: thus *man*, as contrasted with *men*, is a root word.

12. Five of the parts of speech have grammatical forms: namely, the noun, the pronoun, the verb, the adjective, and the adverb.

The remaining three—namely, the preposition, the conjunction, and the interjection—have no grammatical forms.

NOTE ON THE TERM "GRAMMATICAL FORM."

The expression *grammatical form* has been adopted in this text-book as a defining term of the various properties or "accidents" of words. It has been adopted in order to free the study of English grammar from the inconsistencies and contradictions that arise from the employment of the defining terms in common use. Nearly all grammarians have given definitions that confine number, gender, case, person, etc., to *inflections*, or *variations in the forms of words.* Thus—

> "Numbers in grammar are modifications that distinguish unity and plurality."
>
> "Genders are modifications that distinguish objects in regard to sex."
>
> "Cases are modifications that distinguish the relations of nouns and pronouns to other words."

Such a mode of defining is suitable in the grammar of a highly inflected language—Greek or Latin, for instance; but it is foreign to the nature of the English tongue. English has but few inflections, and it resorts to other devices for denoting the grammatical peculiarities of words. Thus, it has but one inflection for case—nominative and objective being distinguished only by grammatical relation; yet all grammarians reckon three cases. It has only one inflection for tense, yet many tenses, these being formed by the aid of auxiliaries. It denotes gender but slightly by modifications, and mainly by the use of different words or of prefixes.

The expression *grammatical form* covers all the peculiarities in the English mode of denoting the grammatical properties of words—whether indicated by *inflection*, by *radical change*, by *auxiliaries*, or by mere *use.* It also enables us to define number, gender, case, etc., in a manner really conformable to the genius of our language.*

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* Angus, *Handbook of the English Tongue;* Fleming, *English Language.*

CHAPTER II.

THE NOUN.

I. Definition.

13. A **noun**,* or name-word, is the **name of anything**,† existing or conceived by the mind. Thus—

Objects of sense.	*James, Milton, Elizabeth*......	names of persons.
	Rome, Boston, Washington...	names of places.
	Tree, river, thunder...........	names of things.
Subjects of thought.	*Whiteness, wisdom, purity*...	names of attributes thought of.
	Reading, study, thinking.....	names of actions thought of.

14. The **tests** of a noun are as follows:

1. A noun may be the subject or the object of a verb. (See §§ 46, 48.)

2. It is the *name* of an *object* or an *idea*, not, like the pronoun, the *representative* of a *name*.

3. It may (when the meaning permits) be inflected for number, gender, and case.

I. **Noun logically defined.**—These tests, or defining marks, furnish the means of arriving at the full definition of the noun, which, according to the rules of defining, should run thus: *A noun is a word which may be the subject or the object of a verb, which names an object or an idea, and which may be inflected for number, gender, and case.*

II. **Substantive.**—Any word or combination of words performing the office of a noun is called a *substantive.*

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* From French *nom*, Latin *nomen*, a name—that by which anything is known.

† The word "thing," or "anything," used in its widest sense, as above, signifies whatever we can *think* about, and applies to *persons* as well as to inanimate objects.

II. Classes of Nouns.

15. Divisions.—Nouns are divided into three principal classes, namely: I. Common. II. Proper. III. Abstract.

16. A common noun is a *general* or *class* name: as—

ship, book, flower, gold.

A collective noun is a common noun denoting a collection of individuals considered as forming one whole or body: as—

army, congress, jury.

17. A proper noun* is a *special* or *individual* name: as—

Henry, *Bismarck*, *Thomas Jefferson*...names of *individuals*.
Boston, *Chicago*, *New Orleans*..........*special* names of certain cities.

Distinction.—The distinction ordinarily made between a common noun and a proper noun—to wit, that the former is the name of many individuals or of a class of objects, the latter of a particular person or object—is not adequate: because, for instance, *John Smith* (a proper noun) is the name of more individuals than is *king* (a common noun).

I. A common noun is the name an object receives by reason of its *nature*, as one of a class, each individual of which resembles every other in kind. Thus the common noun *city* is applicable to a large number of places, as *Boston*, *Chicago*, *New Orleans*, etc., for the reason that each resembles every other in those characteristics that constitute each a "city."

A proper noun is a special name given to an object (person, place, or thing) *without reference to its nature*, in order to distinguish it, not only from things of a different class, but from individuals of the same class. Thus the common noun *orator* distinguishes all who do from all who do not belong to that *class;* but the proper nouns *Cicero* and *Daniel Webster* distinguish the persons so named from all other *orators*.

II. A common noun is *significant*, that is, it has a meaning, and

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* "Proper" (Latin *proprius*) means *own*, or *belonging to one's self.*

its name tells us at once what its *nature* is; a proper noun is *non-significant*. Thus, the noun "river" signifies all that is meant by the definition of *river;* but *Hudson*, as applied to a river, does not mean anything: it is a mere *name*. And that a proper noun signifies nothing as to the nature of the object denoted is shown by the fact that the name "Hudson," for example, is applied not only to a river, but to persons and to cities, and might be applied to mountains, horses, etc., just as well.

A common noun *describes;* a proper noun merely *designates*.

18. An **abstract noun** is the name of some quality or action: as—

whiteness, honesty, length, bravery.

Explanation.—Every object possesses certain qualities or attributes. Thus a star may be *bright* and *distant;* a horse, *swift* and *strong;* a man, *good* and *wise*, etc. If we think of these qualities or attributes by themselves, thus, as it were, *drawing them off* from the objects to which they belong, the names of the attributes thus separated are abstract nouns (Latin *abstractus*, drawn off). Thus from the adjectives above given are formed the following abstract nouns: *brightness*, *distance*, *swiftness*, *strength*, *goodness*, *wisdom*.

EXERCISE 1.

Assign each noun to its class—common, proper, or abstract:

1. The snow was deep on the hills last week.
2. The battle of Brandywine was fought in Pennsylvania.
3. Warren was noted for the sweetness of his disposition.
4. Thanks to the skill, energy, and perseverance of a few master-minds, the problem of girdling the earth is now practically solved.
5. A host of Indian warriors rushed across the plain.
6. The legislature meets in February.
7. Seeing is believing.
8. France has not seen such another king as *Henry the Fourth*.*
9. The *Tempest* was the last tragedy written by Shakspeare.
10. Milton is the Homer of English literature.
11. Many a frozen, many a fiery Alp appeared.
12. O Justice,† thou art fled to brutish beasts!

---

* Complex names like "Henry the Fourth" may be called complex proper nouns.

† A common (or abstract) noun *personified* is called a proper noun.

NOTES ON THE CLASSIFICATION OF NOUNS.

The following subdivisions of the three classes of nouns are given for convenience of reference:

I. Common Nouns.

(1) *General and class names:* as, *book*, *hero*. To this subdivision belong most common nouns. Every such noun is applicable to all the individuals of a given kind. And every such noun is *significant.*

(2) *General names singular:* as, *color*, *space*, *life*, *time*. These are common nouns, because they are *significant*, but they are not class-names, and do not in their strict sense admit a plural. Thus *spaces* denotes different portions of space; *colors*, different kinds of color.

(3) *Names of materials:* as, *earth*, *water*, *salt*. These nouns denote an unbroken or continuous mass, and do not naturally admit a plural. When we speak of *earths*, *waters*, we mean different species of earth or water, and these words are class-names. Thus the same word may be both a class-name and a name of a material, taking a plural in the one case but not in the other. "The merchant sampled several *teas*" [class-name]; "The old lady drank a cup of *tea*" [name of material].

(4) *Collective nouns:* as, *army*, *fleet*, *senate*. In these many individuals are spoken of as in one mass or body, which is then taken as a single object; and a noun thus used has in the singular form a singular verb: as, "The fleet *was* victorious;" "The senate *is* to meet."

> OBS.—Certain collective nouns, as *clergy*, *people*, while denoting many individuals, imply that the individuals act separately, not as a body. Such nouns are sometimes called *nouns of multitude*, and they take a plural verb: thus, "The clergy *were* opposed to the measure;" "The people deeply *feel* the disgrace."

(5) *Becoming proper:* as, *Providence* (applied to the Deity); the *President;* the *Queen of England.* Such names, though allied to common nouns in being significant, resemble proper nouns in being applicable only to a single individual in the same sense. They are substitutes for given names, and may be called proper nouns.

II. Proper Nouns.

(1) *Strictly proper:* as, *Milton*, *Jerusalem*, *the Alps*. These are special names of persons, places, or things. Though strictly applicable only to a single individual at a time, a proper noun may take a plural form: as, *the Miss Thompsons*, *the Rothschilds*.

(2) *Becoming common:* as, a *Milton;* "some village *Hampden*." In this use of proper nouns the design is to denote a *class* ("Milton" = *poet;* "Hampden" = *patriot*), and the names are *significant*. Hence nouns thus used may be called common nouns.

III. Abstract Nouns.

(1) Abstract nouns denoting *attributes:* as, *goodness*, *wisdom*. A noun of this kind presupposes the existence of an adjective from which it is derived.

(2) *Verbal nouns:* as, "*To read* is profitable;" "*Reading* is profitable." In the English language there are two of these verbal nouns, or verbals, for every verb, with the exception of the auxiliaries *may*, *can*, *shall*, *will*, *must*, etc.; namely:

(*a*) The infinitive, that is, the verb in its simplest form, generally with *to* prefixed: as, *to read;*

(*b*) The infinitive in *ing* (called the gerund): as, "*Reading* is profitable."

OBS.—The peculiar nature of these verbal nouns will hereafter be fully explained (see § 100). The infinitive in *ing* must not be confounded with the present participle: as, "The boy *is writing*," or "The boy, *writing* home, said," etc. When the form in *ing* can be substituted for the common infinitive, it is a verbal noun: thus, "*Writing* [=*to write*] is more difficult than *reading* [=*to read*]."

SUMMARY.

Common	Class names	*book, hero.*
	Names singular	*color, space.*
	Names of material	*gold, salt.*
	Collective nouns	*senate, army.*
	Becoming proper	*Providence, the Park.*
Proper	Strictly proper	*John Milton.*
	Becoming common	"*a Milton.*"
Abstract	Abstract (from adjectives)	*whiteness, honesty.*
	Verbals: infinitive	*to write.*
	Verbals: verbal in *ing*	*writing.*

III. Grammatical Forms of the Noun.

19. Number of Forms.—Nouns have four *grammatical forms:* I. Number. II. Gender. III. Case. IV. Person.

I. NUMBER IN NOUNS.

20. Definition.—Number is a grammatical form expressing one or more than one of the objects named by the noun.

21. The two numbers are, the *singular number*, which denotes one: as, *star*, *child;* and the *plural number*, which denotes more than one: as, *stars*, *children*.

FORMATION OF THE PLURAL.

22. There are two modes of forming the plural of nouns: namely, by inflection and by radical change.

Some nouns have no distinguishing mark of number; these may be called *indeterminate forms*.

1. By Inflection.

23. General Rule.—The plural number of nouns is generally formed by adding the inflection **s** or (where euphony requires) **es** to the singular.*

24. The following classes of nouns generally add **es** for the plural:

1. Nouns ending in *ch* (soft), *s*, *sh*, *x*, or *z*, and some nouns in *o* preceded by a consonant: as, *church*, *churches; kiss*, *kisses; dish*, *dishes; box*, *boxes; topaz*, *topazes; motto*, *mottoes*.

---

* I. When the noun ends in a *sharp mute* (*p*, *f*, *t*, *th* [in *thin*], *k*), the **s** has its sharp sound (in sea): as, cat*s*, book*s*.

II. When the noun ends in a *flat mute* (*b*, *v*, *d*, *th* [in *the*], *g*), in a liquid (*m*, *n*, *l*, *r*), or in a vowel, the **s** has its flat sound *z:* as, dog*s*, hen*s*, bell*s*.

2. Nouns ending in *y* preceded by a consonant. Such nouns substitute *i* for *y* before adding **es**: as, *story*, *stories*.*

3. A few Old-English nouns that end in *f* or *fe* and change the *f* or *fe* into *v* before adding **es**: as, *thief*, *thieves*; *wife*, *wives*; *wolf*, *wolves*; *life*, *lives*.

2. **By Radical Change.**

25. A few Old-English nouns form their plural by radical change; that is, by a modification of the vowel sound of the singular. These are—

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
man	**men**
woman	**women**
foot	**feet**
goose	**geese**
tooth	**teeth**
mouse	**mice**
louse	**lice**

3. **Indeterminate Forms.**

26. A few nouns have the same form for the plural as for the singular. Among these are—

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
sheep	**sheep**
deer	**deer**
grouse	**grouse**
salmon	**salmon**
heathen	**heathen**

In these indeterminate forms the number of the noun is to be inferred from the context: thus, "A *sheep* was feeding on the hill;" "*Sheep* were feeding on the hill."

* In words of this class it is more accurate to state that *ie* has been changed in the singular into *y*, as the Old-English way of spelling the words in the singular was *ladie*, *glorie*, etc.; so that the modern plural is *regularly* formed from the *old* singular.

PECULIARITIES OF NUMBER.

27. Double Plurals. — Some nouns have double plurals, each possessing a peculiar signification:

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.	PLURAL.
brother	brothers (by birth)	brethren (of a community).
cloth	cloths (kinds of cloth)	clothes (garments).
die	dies (stamps for coining)	dice (for play).
genius	geniuses (men of talent)	genii (spirits).
index	indexes (contents)	indices (algebraic signs).
pea	peas (single ones)	pease (collective).
penny	pennies (coins)	pence (value or amount).
staff	staves (common use)	staffs (military term).
shot	shot (balls)	shots (number of rounds).
fish	fish (collective)	fishes (individuals).

28. Plurals as Singulars. — Some plural forms are usually treated as singular: as, *amends*, *gallows*, *news*, *odds*, *pains*, *tidings*, *wages*, *thanks*. So—

politics **ethics** **physics** **optics** **mathematics**	represent Greek plurals, but are now treated as singular. Thus, "Mathematics *is* an improving study;" "Optics *is* the science of light."

29. Plurals only. — Some nouns, the names of things consisting of more than one part or forming a pair, have only the plural form:

annals	**entrails**	**scissors**
antipodes	**nuptials**	**shears**
breeches	**pantaloons**	**tongs**
drawers	**pincers**	**victuals**
dregs	**scales**	**vitals**

30. Foreign Plurals. — Many foreign nouns, especially those that are imperfectly naturalized, retain their foreign

plural.* (The plurals of such nouns are readily found by reference to a dictionary.)

	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
(1) *Latin*......................	formula	formulæ
	datum	data
	radius	radii
(2) *Greek*......................	axis	axes
	phenomenon	phenomena
(3) *Italian*......................	bandit	banditti
	virtuoso	virtuosi
(4) *Hebrew*......................	cherub	cherubim
	seraph	seraphim

31. Compounds.—With regard to compounds the following points are to be noted:

I. The plural of compound nouns is generally formed by adding the suffix to the principal noun, that is, to the noun described: as, fruit-*trees*, *brothers*-in-law, *aids*-de-camp.

II. When the last part of a compound is an adjective (according to the French idiom) the suffix is usually added to the noun: as, *attorneys*-general, *courts*-martial.

Knights-Templars pluralizes both parts; as do also *men-servants*, *women-servants*.

III. When the words are so closely allied that the meaning is incomplete till the whole is known, the plural sign is added at the end: as, *forget-me-nots*.

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* 1. Many Latin nouns adopted into our language retain their Latin endings:

Nouns in *us* (masculine) form the plural in *i*; as, focus, foci.
" " *us* (neuter) " " " " *era*; as, genus, genera.
" " *um* " " " " *a*; as, datum, data.
" " *a* " " " " *æ*; as, nebula, nebulæ.
" " *ex* " " " " *ices*; as, vortex, vortices.

2. Some Greek nouns adopted into our language retain the Greek endings in the plural: thus—

Nouns in *is* form the plural in *es*; as, crisis, crises.
" " *on* " " " " *a*; as, phenomenon, phenomena.

32. Proper Nouns.—When proper nouns become plural they generally follow the analogy of common nouns. As to those ending in *y*, usage is unsettled; some writers add *s*, others follow the rule for common nouns.

EXERCISE 2.

A.

Give the *plural* of the following *nouns:*

1. Pen; desk; book; knife; fox; ox; foot; footman.
2. Candle; map; cage; calf; class; hat; sky; toy.
3. Cargo; church; monarch; muff; tyro; focus; basis.
4. Story; dictum; beau; potato; cherub; log; nebula.
5. Chimney; automaton; genus; proof; axis.
6. Criterion; child; woman; wife; kiss; staff.

B.

State the number; and if singular spell the plural, and conversely.

1. Boy; man; pennies; sugar; strap; hens; shoes; fox; ewes; geese.
2. Hens; tigress; ladies; wren; dose; hose; clothes; feet; tooth; ox; vixen; cows; mouse; cruise; crews.
3. Oxen; fish; children; a sheep; three deer; steer; tax; boxes; sorceress.
4. Deacons; deaconess; cheese; valleys; trees; lees; grease; rice; dice.

C.

Write the following sentences, changing the nouns in the plural to nouns in the singular number:

1. Monkeys are the animals which most resemble men.
2. Mice are running across the room.
3. Sheep have woolly fleece.
4. The appendices to these books are short.
5. The hypotheses will not hold good.
6. The data proved to be false.
7. The premises were true.
8. The radii of circles are half their diameters.
9. Nebulæ appeared in the heavens.
10. Gipsies offered to tell us our fortunes.
11. The mountains are enveloped in mists.
12. There are beautiful roses in our gardens.

II. GENDER IN NOUNS.

33. Definition.—Gender is a grammatical form expressing the *sex* or *non-sex* of the object named by a noun.

That is to say, it is a distinction in the *form* or in the *meaning* of nouns (and pronouns), by virtue of which they stand respectively for objects of the male sex, or of the female sex, or for objects without sex.

34. Gender is determined by sex or non-sex, and is of three kinds, I. THE MASCULINE GENDER. II. THE FEMININE GENDER. III. THE NEUTER GENDER.

The name of anything of the male sex is called a *masculine* noun, or a noun of the masculine gender: as, *man*, *king*, *father*.

The name of anything of the female sex is called a *feminine* noun, or a noun of the feminine gender: as, *woman*, *queen*, *mother*.

The name of anything without sex is called a *neuter* noun, or a noun of the neuter gender: as, *stone*, *tree*, *house*.

35. Various grammatical usages in regard to gender may here be noted:

I. A plural noun that is known to denote individuals of both sexes is said to be of **common** gender.

II. A singular noun which by its meaning is indeterminate in gender, but which is known to denote a male, is of the **masculine** gender.

III. A singular noun which by its meaning is indeterminate in gender, but which is known to denote a female, is of the **feminine** gender.

IV. A singular noun so used that the context does not denote the sex of the object is of the **masculine** gender.

V. In the case of the smaller animals and of young children it frequently happens that their names are referred to by means of neuter pronouns: as, "The baby cried *itself* to sleep."

VI. Things without life are often *personified* (that is, spoken of as if they were living beings), and in such cases masculine and feminine pronouns are used in speaking of them: thus—

> For *Winter* came: the wind was *his* whip,
> One choppy finger was on *his* lip:
> *He* had torn the cataracts from the hills,
> And they clanked at *his* girdle like manacles.

36. Its Use.—The distinction of gender is of small importance in English grammar, and appears principally in the employment of the pronouns *he*, *she*, *it*, and a few words of the same class.

Historical Note.—In modern English, *gender* (based as it is solely on the sex or non-sex of the object denoted by the noun) differs widely from gender in Latin or Greek grammar, and also from gender in the Anglo-Saxon form of our speech. In Latin, Greek, and various other languages, the gender of a noun is generally determined, not by the sex or non-sex of the object denoted, but by the *class to which the noun itself belongs according to its termination.* Thus in Latin, nouns in *a* (1st declension) are feminine: hence, *penna* (a pen) is feminine. This may be called *grammatical gender* (applicable only to *words*), in contradistinction to gender expressive of sex or non-sex, which may be styled *natural gender.*

37. How Marked.—The distinction of gender in masculine and feminine nouns that stand for pairs of males and females is made in three ways: (1) by the use of distinct words for the name of the male and of the female; (2) by an auxiliary word; (3) by the use of suffixes.

38. First Mode.—Quite different words are used: as—

MASCULINE.	FEMININE.
man	woman
boy	girl
husband	wife
son	daughter
stag	hind

The gender of such nouns can be known only by their meaning; and to give this does not belong to grammar.

39. Second Mode.—An auxiliary word denoting sex is joined with a noun of indeterminate gender, thus forming a compound word: as—

MASCULINE.	FEMININE.
man-servant	maid-servant
he-goat	she-goat

40. Third Mode.—The feminine is denoted by an inflection of gender. The commonest of these, and the only one by which new feminines can still be formed, is the suffix **ess**: as, *murder-er*, *murder-ess; host*, *host-ess.*

41. Inflection ess.—The suffix **ess** is an inflection of the feminine gender, corresponding to the suffix **er** for the masculine. The following cases are to be noted:

I. When a masculine noun ends in **er**, and the corresponding feminine noun ends in **ess**, we have what is strictly termed grammatical gender: as—

MASCULINE.	FEMININE.
murder-er	murder-ess
sorcer-er	sorcer-ess

II. But such pairs of words are now very rare; and usually the masculine noun corresponding to a feminine noun in **ess** has no ending to mark gender: thus—

MASCULINE.	FEMININE.
giant	giant-ess
heir	heir-ess
poet	poet-ess

III. Frequently the root word undergoes some change of spelling on taking the suffix **ess**: thus—

MASCULINE.	FEMININE.
actor	actr-ess
hunter	huntr-ess
negro	negr-ess
votary	votar-ess

I. The suffix **er** (Anglo-Saxon *ere* = man) is an Old-English inflection of the masculine gender. The corresponding feminine inflection was **ster**. The suffix **ess** is a Norman-French inflection of the feminine gender, and in course of time took the place of the Anglo-Saxon **ster**.

II. In earlier periods of our language, the number of feminines in **ess** was much greater than at present; thus, *doctress*, *waggoness*, *cousiness*, and many other similar nouns were in use in the time of Shakspeare. In our own day a tendency to revive some of these feminines, and to form others (expressive especially of professions recently adopted by women, as *doctress*, *waitress*, *editress*, etc.), is noticeable; but good taste in most cases discourages such innovations, and, indeed, obviates the need of them by treating terms like *doctor*, *author*, *writer*, *engraver*, as applicable equally to women and to men.

42. Foreign Inflections.—In some borrowed words we have feminine endings of foreign origin: thus—

MASCULINE.	FEMININE.
Latin.....executor	execu-trix
Greek......hero	hero-ine

But it will be observed that we cannot, as in the case of **ess**, employ these endings in forming new feminines.

EXERCISE 3.

State the *gender* of the following words:

1. Cow; lass; mistress; poet; gander.
2. Widower; aunt; uncle; priestess; goddess.
3. Lamb; horse; cattle; hogs; pigs; chickens.
4. Pauline; bridegroom; ship; sun; moon.
5. Husband; wife; steer; heifer; gentleman; lady.
6. Moor-hen; ink-bottle; editor; regiment; witch.

III. CASE IN NOUNS.

43. Definition.—Case is a grammatical form denoting the *relation* of a noun to some other word in the sentence.

ILLUSTRATION.—In the sentence,

The general praised the soldier's bravery,

"general" stands for the person who did the action denoted by the verb "praised;" "bravery" stands for that towards which the action (of *praising*) went; "soldier's" is used to indicate whose bravery was praised. "General" and "bravery" have each a certain relation to the verb "praised," and "soldier's" has a certain relation to the noun "bravery."

44. Case-forms.—Nouns in English have only two case-*forms*, exemplified in the words *boy*, *boy's*; *bird*, *bird's*; but as there are at least three distinct *relations* of the noun, and as in most pronouns each of these uses is denoted by a separate word, it is usual to reckon three cases of nouns.

45. The **cases** are:—I. THE NOMINATIVE CASE. II. THE POSSESSIVE CASE. III. THE OBJECTIVE CASE.

46. The **nominative case** is that *form* which a noun has when it is the *subject* of a verb: as, "The *boy* grows."

The **subject** of a verb represents that of which something is asserted.

47. The **possessive case** is that *form* which a noun has in order to denote ownership or possession: as, "The *boy's* book is lost."

48. The **objective case** is that *use* which a noun has when it is the *object* of a verb (or of a preposition). Nouns have the same form in the nominative and objective cases, the case being determined by the *relation* which the noun bears to the verb: as, "The man struck the *boy*."

The **object** of a verb is the name of that on which the action spoken of by a verb terminates. It answers to *whom* or *what* after the verb.

49. Rule for Possessive.—The possessive case in the singular number, and in those plurals which do not end in s in the nominative, is formed by suffixing s with an apostrophe before it ('s) to the nominative case: as, *boy's*, *John's*, *men's*.

In those plurals that end in s, the possessive is formed by placing the apostrophe alone after the s: as, "the *boys'* books," "the *birds'* feathers."

I. It was formerly customary to mark the possessive case singular of nouns ending in *s*, *x*, or *ce* by placing an apostrophe without the *s* after the word: as, "*Socrates'* wife," "the *Times'* editorial." But this practice is now nearly obsolete, except in a few special cases, as, "for *conscience'* sake;" and it would be well could we attain the uniform method of writing the possessive singular with the 's. It is better to write "*Charles's* book" than "*Charles'* book;" "the *goddess's* wrath" than "the *goddess'* wrath." Whether the suffix shall be *pronounced* is a matter of euphony or (in verse) of metrical necessity; in *writing*, the suffix 's belongs to the possessive singular as a matter of grammatical justice.

II. The inflection 's of the possessive singular represents the Anglo-Saxon suffix **es**, which was used to mark the possessive (or *genitive*) case singular of certain classes of nouns: as, nominative, *smith;* genitive, *smithes*=smith's, or of a smith. The apostrophe denotes the elision of the *e* in the old **es**.

III. In compound or complex names the sign of the possessive is affixed to the last word only; as, "my *father-in-law's* house," "John Stuart Mill's *Political Economy*."

50. Declension.—A noun is said to be *declined* when we name its three cases in the two numbers; the process of doing so is called *declension*.

Declension of Nouns.

BOY.			MAN.		
	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.		SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
Nom.	**boy**	**boys**	*Nom.*	**man**	**men**
Poss.	**boy's**	**boys'**	*Poss.*	**man's**	**men's**
Obj.	**boy**	**boys**	*Obj.*	**man**	**men**

LADY.			SHEEP.		
	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.		SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
Nom.	**lady**	**ladies**	*Nom.*	**sheep**	**sheep**
Poss.	**lady's**	**ladies'**	*Poss.*	**sheep's**	**sheep's**
Obj.	**lady**	**ladies**	*Obj.*	**sheep**	**sheep**

EXERCISE 4.

A.

In the following sentences select first the nouns in the *nominative* case, and then those in the *objective* case:

1. I love John.
2. John loves me.
3. The boy likes play.
4. Play tires the boy.
5. The hunters followed the hound.
6. The snow covered the ground.
7. John Milton wrote *Paradise Lost.*
8. Suspicion haunts the guilty mind.
9. Across his brow his hand he drew.
10. The children coming home from school
    Look in at the open door;
    They love to see the flaming forge,
    And hear the bellows roar,
    And catch the burning sparks that fly
    Like chaff from a threshing-floor.
11. Now fades the glimmering landscape on the sight,
    And all the air a solemn stillness holds.
12. Large was his bounty, and his soul sincere;
    Heaven did a recompense as largely send.

B.

Give the *possessive*, singular and plural (if any), of the following nouns:

1. Child; prince; woman; king; cable; tutor.
2. Peril; mercy; father; Henry; aunt; cat.
3. Charles; gardener; brother; poetess; author; painter.
4. Sculptor; engraver; sister; Socrates; princess; bridge.
5. House; Peter; righteousness; ox; thief; sheep.

C.

Write the following—changing the italicized phrases into *possessive nouns:*

1. A cap *of the boy.* 2. The mother *of Moses.* 3. The dresses *of the ladies.* 4. The son *of the princess.* 5. The pain-killer *of Davis.* 6. The wrath *of Achilles.* 7. The work *of the men.* 8. The wool *of the sheep.* 9. The hat *of Mr. Jacob.* 10. The house *of Mr. Jacobs.* 11. The store *of the Messrs. Murray.* 12. The banking-house *of Brown Brothers.* 13. The houses *of my sons-in-law.*

IV. PERSON IN NOUNS.

51. Person in nouns is a grammatical form which shows whether the speaker is meant, the person spoken to, or the person or thing spoken of.*

Grammatical person is best understood by reference to the personal pronouns. (See § 56.)

There are three persons: the *first*, the *second*, and the *third*—the *first* denoting the speaker, the *second* the person spoken to, the *third* the person or thing spoken of.

52. How known.—Person in nouns is not marked by any sign, being denoted wholly by grammatical relation.

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* The word "person" has in grammar a technical meaning quite different from its ordinary signification (namely, a *rational being* or *individual*). The term was borrowed by the old grammarians from the language of the stage, in which the players, only three in number, were called the "persons" of the drama (*dramatis personæ*). From this the word came to mean the character assumed, the part taken by each performer. Hence "person," as a grammatical term, means a mode of denoting (by the *use* of a noun and by the *form* of a pronoun) the *parts* sustained by the several participants in discourse—as that of the speaker, the person addressed, etc.

I. A noun used in connection with a personal pronoun of the first person is in the first person: as, "I, *Paul.*"

II. A noun used in connection with a personal pronoun of the second person is in the second person: as, "Thou, *God*, seest me."

III. A noun that is the name of anything spoken of is in the third person. Nouns are *always* in the third person except when they are in *apposition* (see page 102) with a pronoun of the first or second person.

GENERAL REVIEW OF NOUNS.

A.

TABLE FOR BLACKBOARD.

- **Classes**........
  - Common.
  - Proper.
  - Abstract.
- **Gram. Forms**..
  - Number...
    - Singular.
    - Plural.
  - Gender...
    - Masculine.
    - Feminine.
    - [Common.]
    - Neuter.
  - Case........
    - Nominative.
    - Possessive.
    - Objective.
- **Inflections**.....
  - s *or* es = plural.
  - 's = possessive case singular.

B.

TOPICAL ANALYSIS.

I. Definition of the Noun.

1. Tests.
2. Logical Definition.

II. Classes of Nouns.

1. Common defined.
   Collective.
2. Proper defined.
   Distinction of proper and common.
3. Abstract defined.

III. Grammatical Forms.

1. NUMBER DEFINED.
   a. Singular.
   b. Plural.

2. FORMATION OF PLURAL.
   a. By inflection.
   b. By radical change—examples.
   c. Indeterminate forms—examples.

3. GENDER DEFINED.
   a. How determined.
   b. Masculine.
   c. Feminine.
   d. Common.
   e. Neuter.

4. MARKS OF GENDER.
   a. By different words—examples.
   b. By prefixed words—examples.
   c. By inflection—examples.

5. CASE DEFINED.
   a. Case-forms.
   b. Cases—number of.
   c. Nominative.
   d. Possessive—formation of.
   e. Objective.
   f. Declension—examples.

C.

WRITTEN REVIEWS.*

I.

1. State the derivation of the word *noun*.

2. Write a sentence containing two nouns, the names of material objects, and a sentence containing two nouns, the names of objects perceived by the mind.

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* In these Written Reviews the questions have in some cases reference to matter in subordinate type or to matter in the Notes (see Appendix, page 237).

3. State to which of the following words the three tests of the noun apply (and hence which are *nouns*): *hero*, *heroic*, *we*, *man*, *truly*, *who*.

4. Give the three principal divisions of nouns, and illustrate each class by an example in a sentence.

5. Write in your own language the chief distinction between a proper noun and a common noun, and apply the explanation to the nouns *river* and *Amazon*.

6. Give three examples of an abstract noun. Form three from any three adjectives.

7. To which class of nouns do the words "seeing" and "believing" in the sentence "*Seeing* is *believing*" belong?

8. The plural of nouns is usually formed by adding *s* or *es* to the singular. Explain the following plurals which are otherwise formed: *oxen*,* *feet*, *mice*, *children*,* *strata*.

9. Write the plurals of the following words: *cow*, *knife*, *wife*, *dwarf*, *staff*, *ox*, *die*, *house*, *wealth*, *phenomenon*, *canto*, *lily*, *donkey*, *stomach*, *son-in-law*, *brigadier-general*.

10. In the following stanzas classify the nouns:

> Can storied urn or animated bust
>   Back to its mansion call the fleeting breath?
> Can Honor's voice provoke the silent dust,
>   Or Flattery soothe the dull, cold ear of Death?
>
> Some village Hampden, that with dauntless breast
>   The little tyrant of his fields withstood,
> Some mute inglorious Milton here may rest,
>   Some Cromwell, guiltless of his country's blood.

II.

1. State the origin of the plural suffix *s*, and illustrate.†

2. Write a sentence containing a collective noun.

3. State the number of the following nouns: *mathematics*, *scissors*, *deer*, *alms*.

4. Write the plural of *Englishman*, *Frenchman*, *Mussulman*, *Ottoman*, *German*, *talisman*.

5. Give three nouns (*a*) that have no singular form; (*b*) that have no plural form; (*c*) that have singular and plural alike.

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* See "Notes on Number," Appendix, page 237.
† See "Notes on Number," Appendix, page 237.

6. Give the two plurals of the following words, and distinguish between the meanings: *die*, *brother*, *cloth*, *penny*.

7. How does gender differ from sex?

8. State the several modes of forming the feminine of nouns, and illustrate by examples.

9. From what language is the feminine suffix *ess* derived? What was the corresponding Anglo-Saxon suffix?

10. Is there anything etymologically peculiar in the following words: *songstress*, *spinster*?*

III.

1. Write two masculine nouns formed from the feminine.†

2. Write three nouns of common gender.

3. Why is there no need of such feminine forms as *waitress*, *editress*, etc.?

4. Write the definition of case, name the three cases, and illustrate by the declension of a noun.

5. What is the only case-*inflection* in modern English?

6. How do we distinguish between the nominative and the possessive case?

7. Explain the origin of *'s* in such a word as *father's*. Will the same explanation apply to the plural, *fathers'*?‡

8. Write the possessive case plural of *man*, *lady*, *enemy*.

9. Explain the term objective case.

10. State the grammatical forms (that is, the number, gender, case, and person) of "hero" in the sentence "The hero perished in his prime," giving the reason for each form.

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* Appendix, page 238. † Appendix, page 238. ‡ Appendix, page 240.

CHAPTER III.

THE PRONOUN.

I. Definition.

53. A **pronoun*** is a word used for a *name* or **instead of** a *noun:* as, "*I* say;" "*He* remained;" "*Who* is afraid?" "*That* is good."

I. A pronoun cannot be correctly defined merely as "a word used instead of a noun." This definition holds good with reference to some of them only: it does not apply, for instance, to the personal pronouns of the first and second persons (*I*, *you*), which can by no means be said to stand instead of a noun.†

II. A pronoun *resembles* a noun (1) in having the grammatical uses of the noun; and (2) in having, when the meaning permits, grammatical forms to denote gender, number, and case. It *differs* from a noun in not being a *name*. The noun describes, the pronoun designates without describing.

II. Classification and Inflection.

54. Pronouns are divided into three classes:—I. Personal. II. Relative. III. Interrogative.

I. PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

55. A **personal pronoun** is one that marks grammatical *person.*

The personal pronouns are: *I, you* (*thou*), *he, she, it,* with their plurals, *we, you* (*ye*), *they.*

Person has been already defined under Nouns (see § 51) as a grammatical form which shows whether the speaker is meant, the person spoken to, or the person or thing spoken of.

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* Latin *pro*, for, and *nomen*, a name, or noun.

† See "The Pronoun," Appendix, page 241.

56. There are three persons: the *first*, the *second*, and the *third*.

A personal pronoun is of the *first person* when it denotes the speaker, of the *second person* when it denotes the person spoken to, and of the *third person* when it denotes the person or thing spoken of.

The ordinary definition above given has brevity to recommend it; but a more accurate description would be as follows:

1. The personal pronoun of the first person is that used when one speaks of himself singly (*I*), or of himself together with another person or other persons (*we*).
2. The personal pronoun of the second person is that used when one speaks of the person or persons whom he is addressing (*you—thou*, *ye*).
3. The personal pronoun of the third person is that used when any person or persons, thing or things, are spoken of (*he*, *she*, *it*, *they*).

57. Grammatical Forms.—In addition to *person*, the personal pronouns all express *number* and *case*, and the third personal pronoun in the singular number expresses *gender*.

58. Declension.—The following is a tabular view of the personal pronouns, showing their various inflections and other changes.

Declension of the Personal Pronouns.

	SINGULAR.			PLURAL.		
	Nom.	*Poss.*	*Obj.*	*Nom.*	*Poss.*	*Obj.*
First person,	I,	my *or* mine,	me.	We,	our *or* ours,	us.
Second,	You,	your *or* yours,	you.	You,	your *or* yours,	you.
Third, Mas.	He,	his,	him.	They,	their *or* theirs,	them.
Third, Fem.	She,	her *or* hers,	her.			
Third, Neut.	It,	its,	it.			

Second pers., solemn style.—Thou, thy *or* thine, thee. *Nom. pl.* Ye.

The pronouns of the first and second persons have two forms of the possessive case: *my*, *mine*; *thy*, *thine*; *our*, *ours*; *your*, *yours*; the third person feminine has *her*, *hers*; the third person

plural has *their, theirs*. The former of each pair is used attributively, i. e., with a noun expressed; the latter is used independently, after a verb. Thus—

This is { my / her / our / your / their } house. *But*, This house is { mine. / hers. / ours. / yours. / theirs. }

The former set are generally called possessive adjectives or possessive adjective pronouns; the latter are by some grammarians called personal pronouns in the possessive case, and by others are considered independent possessive pronouns, in the nominative or objective case, according to their construction in a sentence.

59. Compounds.—A compound form is obtained for the personal pronouns, in the nominative and objective cases, by adding *self* or *selves* to the possessive of the first and second persons, and to the objective of the third person.

	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1.	Myself,	Ourselves.
2.	Thyself, Yourself,	Yourselves.
3.	Himself, Herself, Itself,	Themselves.

I. Sometimes these compounds are put in apposition to another word merely to give it force; in this instance they may be termed *emphatic* personal pronouns: as, "John *himself* went;" "They went *themselves*."

II. When used after a transitive* verb, such words are termed *reflexive* pronouns, as implying the bending back of an action upon the person or thing spoken of: as, "John hurt *himself*."

III. The pronouns of the first and second persons do not mark distinctions of gender, because when a person speaks of himself or to another, the sex, being evident, does not require to be formally expressed. The plurals are necessarily *indeterminate*

* See § 91.

in gender, as *we*, *you*, and *they* may include persons of different sexes.

IV. *You* is now employed both as the singular and plural of the second person, but is used only with verbs in the plural number: as, "You *are*" (not *art*). *Thou*, the old form, is now obsolete except in religious or poetical use, and in the idiom of the Society of Friends.

II. RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

60. A **relative pronoun** is a pronoun that both represents a preceding noun or pronoun and connects with it a dependent proposition:* as—

1. No PEOPLE can be great *who* [have ceased to be virtuous].
2. How blest is HE *who* crowns in shades like these
   A youth of labor with an age of ease.
3. I have found the SHEEP *which* was lost.
4. I dare do ALL *that* may become a man.
5. One man admires *what* displeases another.

All pronouns have a representative use; but what is peculiar in the relatives is their connective office. (On this account the relatives are often called *conjunctive* pronouns.) They go back (*relate*) in meaning to some foregoing (*antecedent*) word or words with which they serve to join some descriptive statement. A relative pronoun cannot form the subject of an independent proposition.

61. The **antecedent** of a relative is the noun or pronoun represented by the relative.

62. The relative pronouns are *who*, *which*, *that*, and *what*. *Who* is used to represent persons, and *which* to represent inferior animals and lifeless things; *that* refers both to persons and things, and is used instead of *who* or *which* in certain circumstances.

NOTE.—The rules for the use of *that* belong to Syntax (see page 181). For the idiomatic use of *as* and *but* as relatives, see Idiomatic Forms, page 186.

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* For the definition of dependent proposition (or *clause*), see § 220.

Who and **which** are inflected as follows, alike in the singular and the plural:

	SING. & PL.	SING. & PL.
Nom.	**who**	**which**
Poss.	**whose**	**whose**
Obj.	**whom**	**which**

That and **what** are indeclinable.

63. **What** is a relative used without an antecedent, and is equivalent in meaning to *that which.* (See page 109.)

64. **Compound relatives** are formed by adding *ever* and *soever* to *who*, *which*, and *what.* These compounds may be called indefinite relative pronouns. *Whosoever* is declined—

Nom..........**whosoever**
Poss..........**whosesoever**
Obj...........**whomsoever**

III. INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

65. An **interrogative pronoun** is a pronoun used in asking a question. They are *who?* *which?* and *what?* *Who* and *which* are declined in the same manner as the corresponding relatives.

66. **Who** is applied to persons: thus—

Who told you so? *Whose* is this book? To *whom* shall I apply?

67. **Which** is applied both to persons and things when it is used to ask which individual of a known class or number is the object inquired about: thus—

Which of you did this? *Which* (thing) shall I take?

68. **What** is used with reference to things in an indefinite manner: thus—

What shall I say? *What* do you want?

EXERCISE 5.

Select the pronouns, and state to which class each belongs:

1. I hope you will give me the book I lent you. 2. Whenever Antonio met Shylock on the Rialto, he used to reproach him with his usuries and hard dealings; which the Jew would hear with seeming patience, while he secretly meditated revenge. 3. What did the prisoner say? 4. Tell me what the prisoner said. 5. Ours are as good as yours. 6. You must blame yourselves for your loss. 7. Who would be free, themselves must strike the blow. 8. Who would fardels bear, to groan and sweat under a weary life, when he himself might his quietus make with a bare bodkin? 9. She deserves great praise for her work. 10. Behold the moon; she cometh forth in her beauty. 11. This is not the book that I sent you for.

12. And I have loved thee, Ocean! and my joy
Of youthful sports was on thy breast to be
Borne, like thy bubbles, onward: from a boy
I wantoned with thy breakers—they to me
Were a delight; and, if the freshening sea
Made them a terror—'twas a pleasing fear;
For I was as it were a child of thee,
And trusted to thy billows far and near,
And laid my hand upon thy mane—as I do here.

GENERAL REVIEW OF PRONOUNS.

A.

TOPICAL ANALYSIS.

I. Definition of the Pronoun.

1. Real nature of the pronoun.
2. Compared with the noun.
   a. Resemblances.
   b. Differences.

II. Classification of the Pronoun.

1. Personal defined.
2. Number of personal pronouns.
   a. Use of the first personal.
   b. Use of the second personal.
   c. Use of the third personal.

3. Grammatical forms of personal pronouns.
4. Declension.
   a. First personal.
   b. Second personal.
   c. Third personal.
   d. Double possessive forms.
5. Compound personals.
   Their functions.
6. Relative defined.
7. Antecedent defined.
8. Principal relatives.
   a. *Who*—its use.
   b. *Who*—declined.
   c. *Which*—its use.
   d. *That*—its use.
   e. Compound relatives.
9. Interrogative defined.
   a. *Who?*
   b. *Which?*
   c. *What?*

B.

WRITTEN REVIEW.

1. Define pronoun.
2. State in what respect the ordinary definition is inadequate.
3. Write the full definitions of the personal pronouns of the first, second, and third persons respectively.
4. Explain *mine*, *thine*, *ours*, *yours*, *theirs*. What is the difference between *my* and *mine?*—*their* and *theirs?*
5. When was the word *its* first introduced? What form did it supplant?*
6. What is peculiar in the use of the relative pronouns?
7. Write a sentence containing *who* as a relative;—a sentence containing *which* as a relative;—a sentence containing *whom* as a relative.
8. Write a sentence containing *who* as an interrogative; — a sentence containing *whom* as an interrogative.

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* See Appendix, page 241.

CHAPTER IV.

THE ADJECTIVE.

I. Definition.

69. An **adjective*** is a word joined to a noun (or pronoun) to limit or qualify its meaning: thus—

1. *This* book; *five* apples; a *white* horse; *red* roses; *wise* men.
2. The fields are *green*. We call the proud *happy*.

I. All adjectives limit the application of the nouns to which they are joined, and in the case of one class of adjectives (namely, the *limiting*) the sole office is that of restricting the extent of application of the noun. Thus: "*this* book"—that is, not *a* book in general, or *your* book; "*five* apples" (no more or less). But *qualifying* adjectives have a double office: while they narrow the *application* of the nouns with which they are joined, they also increase their *meaning*. Thus, in the expression "a white horse," the adjective "white" adds to the notion "horse" the notion of a certain attribute, namely, that of *whiteness*; so that "white horse" forms one complex description. But the adjective "white" serves also to confine the meaning of the term "horse" to one of a special kind of horses, namely, "*white* horses;" and these form a smaller class than "horses" in general.

II. An adjective is not always joined directly (attributively) to a noun; the attribute named by the adjective may be asserted (predicatively) by means of a verb: as, "The fields are *green*;" "We call the proud *happy*."

II. Classification.

70. Adjectives may be divided into two general classes:

* From Latin *adjectivus*, that may be added or annexed to something (that is, to a noun or a pronoun).

I. LIMITING (or *definitive*) ADJECTIVES. II. QUALIFYING (or *descriptive*) ADJECTIVES.

I. LIMITING ADJECTIVES.

71. A **limiting** (or definitive) adjective is one that merely *defines* or *restricts* the meaning of a noun: as—

a book; *this* school; *some* peaches; *three* black crows.

72. Limiting adjectives are subdivided into three classes: I. ARTICLES. II. PRONOMINAL ADJECTIVES. III. NUMERAL ADJECTIVES.

I. Articles.

73. The limiting adjectives *the* and *an* or *a* are called **articles.*** *The* is called the *definite article; an*, or *a*, the *indefinite article.*

I. **The** is used to point out (1) one or more particular objects or (2) a class of objects: as, "*The* dog bit *the* boys;" that is, the *particular* "dog" and "boys" previously referred to. "*The* dog is a faithful animal;" that is, the *class* or *kind* of animals named *dogs.*

II. **An**, or **a**, is used to indicate *any one* of a class of objects named by a noun: as, "*A* dog bit me." "I saw *an* old man."

74. **An** and **a**† (which are merely different forms of the same word) are both called the indefinite article.

A is used before words beginning with a consonant sound:

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* There is no good reason for erecting the articles into a *part of speech.* They are simply limiting adjectives, and, strictly speaking, do not deserve to be made even a separate subdivision of this class of adjectives; for *the* is merely a contracted form of the demonstrative *that*, and *an*, or *a*, a contracted form of the numeral *one* (Anglo-Saxon *ane* or *an*). The term "article" is, however, in such common use that it has been retained in this book.

† The *n* in *an* is a part of the root (Anglo-Saxon *ane* or *an* = one). Hence it is not *a* that becomes *an* before a vowel or a silent *h*, according to the common rule, but *an* that loses its final letter before a consonant.

as, "*a* man," "*a* house," "*a* wonder," "*a* year," "*a* use," "*a* unit," "*a* European."*

An is used before words beginning with a vowel sound: as, "*an* art," "*an* end," "*an* heir," "*an* hour," "*an* urn."†

II. Pronominal Adjectives.

75. Some limiting adjectives may by themselves represent a noun. When thus used they are called **pronominal adjectives.**

A *pronominal* adjective (*pro*, for, and *nomen*, a name or noun) sometimes performs the office both of an adjective and of a noun. Thus: "Is this his book?" "No, it is *mine*" (= my book). We heard the minister's speech, but not *that* (= the speech) of the doctor."

76. The principal pronominal adjectives are included in the following list:

all	**each**	**much**	**some**
another	**either**	**neither**	**such**
any	**few**	**own**	**that**
both	**many**	**several**	**this**

The following sentences illustrate the use of these words as limiting adjectives and as pronominal adjectives:

LIMITING ADJECTIVES.	PRONOMINAL ADJECTIVES.
All the world's a stage.	*All* assented to the plan.
There is *another* and a better world.	Never either found *another* to free the hollow heart from paining.
Is there *any*‡ danger?	If *any*, speak.

* *U* long (that is, sounded like the combination *you*), as also its representative *eu*, has an initial consonant sound; hence, *a* use, *a* eulogy.

† In regard to the employment of *a* or of *an* before words beginning with *h* aspirate there is a difference of usage, especially in the case of certain words commencing with *h* faintly sounded, and when the accent is on the second syllable. Thus, while we say "*a* history," "*a* hero," many prefer to write "*an* historical work," "*an* heroic deed." This is perhaps the more *scholarly*, but it does not promise to become the *popular* usage.

‡ *Any* contains the original form of the numeral one (Anglo-Saxon *an*), with the suffix *ig* or *y*.

LIMITING ADJECTIVES.	PRONOMINAL ADJECTIVES.
Both courses are dangerous.	*Both* are dangerous.
*Each** ivied arch is in decay.	*Each* seemed the centre of his own fair world.
Either† plan promises well.	I will take *either*.
Few men can bear prosperity.	*Few, few* shall part where many *meet*.
We have passed *many* happy days.	Few, few shall part where *many* meet.
I have *much* pleasure in serving you.	Though *much* is taken, *much* remains.
Neither plan promises well.	I will take either, but you shall have *neither*.
This is my *own*, my native land.	It is a trifle, but my *own*.
Several boys ran away.	*Several* were missing.
Some pious drops the closing eye requires.	*Some* fell by the wayside.
Such‡ harmony is in immortal souls.	If you are a man, show yourself *such*.
Look on *this* picture.	Look on *this*.
Look on *that* picture.	Look on *that*.

NOTES ON LIMITING AND PRONOMINAL ADJECTIVES.

I. **Demonstratives.**—The following pronominal adjectives are often named *demonstratives*, or demonstrative adjectives (or pronouns): *this, these; that, those; former, latter; same, such.*

II. **Indefinites.**—The following are often named indefinite adjectives (or pronouns): *all, any, another, few, many, none, other, some.*

III. **Distributives.**—The following are often named distributive adjectives (or pronouns): *each, either, neither.*

IV. **Interrogative and Relative.**—The interrogative and relative pronouns *which* and *what*, with their compounds *whichever* and *whatever*, when used with nouns, are classed as limiting adjectives.

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* *Each* is derived from Old-English *a*=ever, and *lic*=like.

† "Neither" is *either* with the negative prefix *ne*=not.

‡ *Such* is derived from *so* (Old-English *swa*) and *like* (Old-English *lic*), that is, *so like* or *this like*.

Interrogatives... { *Which* book will you have? *What* noise is this?

Relatives......... { I see *which* book you wish. I know *what* pains you take.

V. Limiting Only.—The indefinite adjective *no*,* the demonstrative adjective *yonder*, and the distributive adjective *every*† are used solely as limiting adjectives.

The indefinite *none*‡ is pronominal only: as, "*None* knew thee but to love thee."

VI. Inflected Forms.—Some of the pronominal adjectives have so completely assumed the office of nouns that they undergo inflections. Thus, *either* and *another* have a possessive form, *either's*, *another's*: as—

1. Then *either's* love was *either's* life.
2. Learn to feel *another's* woe.

Other has a plural, *others*, which is regularly declined: nom. *others*; poss. *others'*; obj. *others*.

III. Numeral Adjectives.

77. A numeral adjective is one that expresses a definite number: as, *one*, *two*, *three*; *first*, *second*, etc.

78. Numeral adjectives are divided into two classes:

1. *Cardinal*, which denote *how many*: as, "*two* bats;" "*three* balls."

The cardinal numerals from *one* to *ninety-nine* are adjectives; but the words *hundred*, *thousand*, *million* (like *pair* and *dozen*) are nouns, and may be preceded by the indefinite article: as, "*a* hundred sheep;"§ or may take the plural form: as, "*hundreds* of sheep."

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* "No" is formed from *none* by dropping *ne*, just as *my* is formed from *mine*.

† "Every" is a contraction of *ever each*="each and all" (of two or more objects).

‡ "None" is formed from Old-English *ne an*=not one.

§ In Anglo-Saxon these words were followed by a noun in the possessive (genitive) case: thus, "a hundred sheep"=a hundred *of* sheep.

2. *Ordinal*, which denote in *what order* things are arranged in a series: as, "the *first* prize;" "the *third* day;" "the *hundredth* night."

I. The ordinal numerals, with the exception of the first two, are formed from the cardinal numerals: thus, *fourth*, *fifth*, *sixth*, *thousandth*, etc. But *first* and *second* are not etymologically connected with *one*, *two*. *First* (=*foremost*) is the superlative of *fore*. *Second* is from Latin *secundus*.

II. The term *multiplicatives* is sometimes applied to numerals denoting repetition: as, "*twice*," or "twofold;" "*thrice*," or "threefold;" "*fifty-fold*," "*double*," etc.

II. QUALIFYING ADJECTIVES.

79. A **qualifying** (or descriptive) adjective is one that denotes some quality or attribute of the object named by the noun: thus—

A *lofty* mountain. A *running* stream.

I. To this class belongs the great body of adjectives; for it includes the thousands of words expressive of the various qualities, attributes, and properties which we ascertain either through the senses or by a process of thought.

II. It is needless for grammatical purposes to make any subdivision of qualifying adjectives; but it may be useful to give an explanation of the following terms, which are sometimes applied to certain adjectives of this class:

1. **Proper Adjectives.**—These are derived from proper nouns: as, "an *American* idea;" "*Platonic* love." They are in their nature qualifying adjectives, and have nothing peculiar except that they are written with an initial capital.
2. **Participial Adjectives.**—By a participial adjective* is meant a participle used strictly as an adjective: as, "a *loving* friend;" "an *educated* man."

It seems unnecessary to designate such words by a special name ("participial adjectives"). They have ceased to be participles, and may be parsed simply as qualifying adjectives.

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* See page 64.

3. A **compound** adjective is formed from two simple words, with an intervening hyphen: as, "a *white-robed* maiden;" "the *straw-built* shed;" "a *heart-rending* scream." It is unnecessary in parsing to specify that an adjective is *compound*, any more than that it is *primitive* or *derivative.*

III. Grammatical Form of the Adjective.

80. Adjectives have but one *grammatical form*, namely, *comparison.*

In many languages adjectives are inflected to mark gender, number, and case, and in these respects they are made to agree with their nouns. A Latin adjective, like *bonus* (good), followed through all its inflections, assumes twelve different forms. In the earliest English there were several such inflections. Thus the adjective *good*, preceded by the definite article, was, when used with a masculine noun in the nominative case, god*a*, with a feminine noun god*e*, and with a neuter noun god*e;* the nominative plural was god*an*. But these variations had all disappeared from our speech several centuries ago.*

81. **Comparison** is a modification of adjectives (and adverbs) to express degrees of quantity or quality.

82. There are three degrees of comparison—the *positive*, the *comparative*, and the *superlative.*

83. The **positive** degree of an adjective is the adjective without modification, used to denote simple quantity or quality: as, *long*, *righteous.*

84. The **comparative** degree of an adjective is that modification of it by means of which we show that one thing, or

* "The irreconcilability of the Norman and Saxon modes of inflecting adjectives compelled the English to discard them both; but the Saxon endings of number were not given up till the fifteenth century."—Marsh: *Lectures on the English Language.*

set of things, possesses a certain quality or attribute in a greater degree than another thing, or set of things: thus—

1. My knife is *sharper* than yours.
   One thing compared with another.
2. This soldier is *taller* than those.
   One thing compared with a number of things.
3. Your parents are *richer* than mine.
   A set of things compared with a set of things.
4. These books are *larger* than that one.
   A set of things compared with one thing.

85. The **superlative** degree of an adjective is that modification of it by means of which we show that a certain thing, or set of things, possesses some quality or attribute in a greater degree than any other of the class to which it belongs: as, "the *tallest* soldier;" "the *minutest* grain."

86. Formation.—I. Adjectives of one syllable generally form their comparative by suffixing **er**, and their superlative by suffixing **est**, to the positive:* thus—

POSITIVE.	COMPARATIVE.	SUPERLATIVE.
bold	bolder	boldest
wise	wiser	wisest

II. Adjectives of more than one syllable generally form their comparative by joining the adverb **more**, and their superlative by joining the adverb **most**, with the positive: thus—

POSITIVE.	COMPARATIVE.	SUPERLATIVE.
faithful	more faithful	most faithful
dangerous	more dangerous	most dangerous

I. This is the general rule; but from it there are frequent departures. Thus many two-syllabled adjectives ending in *y*, *le*,

* In adding these suffixes the usual rules for spelling derivative words are to be observed.

ow, **and *er* form their comparative and superlative by suffixing er** and **est: as—**

happy	happier	happiest
able	abler	ablest
shallow	shallower	shallowest
tender	tenderer	tenderest

But it would sound harsh to say *prudenter*, *earnestest*. In this matter euphony is the guide.

II. On the other hand, even short adjectives may be compared by means of more and most, if the ear is satisfied: thus, "Alfred is the *most apt* of all the pupils." "Give us *more ample* ground."

87. Irregular comparison is a mode of marking the degrees of comparison different from the regular mode. The following are irregular comparisons:

POSITIVE.	COMPARATIVE.	SUPERLATIVE.
good	**better**	**best**
well	**better**	**best**
bad / **evil** / **ill**	**worse**	**worst**
little	**less**	**least**
many / **much**	**more**	**most**
far	**farther**	**farthest**
[**forth**]	**further**	**furthest**
near	**nearer**	**nearest** *or* **next**
nigh	**nigher**	**nighest** *or* **next**
late	**later** *or* **latter**	**latest** *or* **last**
old	**older** *or* **elder**	**oldest** *or* **eldest**
hind	**hinder**	**hindmost**
up	**upper**	**upmost**
out	**utter** *or* **outer**	**utmost, uttermost,** *or* **outmost**

NOTES ON IRREGULAR ADJECTIVES.

Good: ***Better*** **and *best*** [bet-est] **are the comparative and the superlative of the obsolete Anglo-Saxon *bet*, a synonym of *good*.**

Bad: *Worse* and *worst* are the comparative and superlative of the obsolete Anglo-Saxon *weor*, a synonym of *bad.*

Obs.—A regular comparative, *badder*, is found in early English.

Old: The regular comparative and superlative are used when *old* is contrasted with *new;* the irregular forms when it is contrasted with *young;* as, "The *older* house belongs to the *elder* brother." But *older* and *oldest* are often applied to animate beings; *elder* and *eldest* never to inanimate.

Obs.—*Elder* does not now denote greater age so much as the relation of precedence; it cannot be followed by *than.*

Late: The regular forms *later* and *latest* are opposed to *earlier* and *earliest;* the irregular forms *latter* and *last* are opposed to *former* and *first*. *Last* is a compression of *late-est.*

Farther, further: *Farther*, from *far*, means *more distant*, and is opposed to *nearer;* as, "I prefer the *farther* house." *Further*, from *forth*, means *more advanced* or *additional;* as, "I shall mention a *further* reason."

Inner, inmost, have no positive: *down*, *downmost*, and *top*, *topmost*, have no comparative; *nether*, *nethermost*, are the comparative and superlative of *neath.*

Obs.—The suffix *most*, in these superlatives, is not the adverb *most.* It is really a double superlative ending, compounded of the two Anglo-Saxon endings *ma* and *ost*, each of which is equivalent to *est.* Hence foremost=*fore*+*ma*+*ost.*

88. Incomparables.—Adjectives that are of absolute or superlative signification cannot, if taken in their strict sense, be compared: as—

Dead, perpendicular, empty, round—(adjectives having no shades of meaning).

Perfect, infinite, supreme, universal — (adjectives expressing the highest possible degree).

I. Many of these adjectives are compared in colloquial use, and even by good writers, and such comparison may be deemed allowable on the theory that these adjectives are not used in

their strict sense. However, we can generally avoid such comparisons. In place of saying "more perfect," "more perpendicular," etc., we may say "*more nearly* perfect," "*more nearly* perpendicular," etc.

II. Some adjectives, as *anterior*, *superior*, *inferior*, *senior*, *junior*, *prior*, *posterior*, etc., suggest the *idea* of comparison (and they are real *Latin* comparatives), but they do not admit its forms; and when a comparison is implied these adjectives are followed by *to*, and not by *than*, as comparatives usually are: as, "This event was *anterior to* the Revolution." "Your ability is *superior to* mine."

GENERAL REVIEW OF ADJECTIVES.

A.

TABLE FOR BLACKBOARD.

- **Classes**
  - *Limiting*
    - ARTICLE: Definite. Indefinite.
    - PRONOMINAL: Demonstrative. Indefinite. Distributive. Interrogative and Relative.
    - NUMERAL: Cardinal. Ordinal. Multiplicative.
  - *Qualifying.*
- **Gram. Forms** .... Comparison only.
- **Inflections**: Comparative, -er. Superlative, -est.

B.

TOPICAL ANALYSIS.

I. Definition.

1. OFFICE OF ALL ADJECTIVES.
2. OFFICE OF QUALIFYING ADJECTIVES.

II. Classification.

1. NUMBER OF CLASSES.
2. NAMES OF CLASSES.

III. Limiting Adjectives.

1. Definition.
2. Subdivision.
    a. Articles.
    b. Pronominal adjectives.
    c. Numeral adjectives.
3. Articles.
    a. Definition.
    b. *The*—name and use.
    c. *An*, or *a*—name and use.
    d. Rules for their use.
4. Pronominal adjectives.
    a. Definition.
        (1) Demonstratives—example.
        (2) Indefinites—example.
        (3) Distributives—example.
        (4) Interrogatives and relatives—example.
5. Numeral adjectives.
    a. Definition.
    b. Subdivision.
        (1) Cardinals—definition.
        (2) Ordinals—definition.
        (3) Multiplicatives—definition.

IV. Qualifying Adjectives.

1. Definition.

V. Grammatical Forms.

1. Comparison—definition.
2. Number of degrees.
    a. Positive—definition.
    b. Comparative—definition.
    c. Superlative—definition.
3. Rules of formation.
    a. Monosyllabic words.
    b. Polysyllabic words.
4. Adjectives incomparable.

C.

WRITTEN REVIEW.

1. Give the derivation of the word "adjective."

2. Explain how an adjective both limits and enlarges the sense of a noun.

3. Write a sentence containing two limiting adjectives; a sentence containing three qualifying adjectives.

4. Which is preferable, "a historical work" or "an historical work?" State the reason for your preference.

5. Write a sentence containing two or more proper adjectives.

6. Explain the meaning of the terms *positive*, *comparative*, and *superlative*.

7. Write a sentence containing an adjective in each of the degrees of comparison.

8. Copy the following, drawing one line under each adjective, and two lines under the word it limits or qualifies.

> The house-dog, on his paws outspread,
> Laid to the fire his drowsy head;
> The cat's dark silhouette on the wall
> A couchant tiger's seemed to fall;
> And, for the winter fireside meet,
> Between the andiron's straddling feet,
> The mug of cider simmered slow,
> The apples sputtered in a row;
> And close at hand the basket stood,
> With nuts from brown October's wood.—*Whittier.*

CHAPTER V.

THE VERB.

I. Definition.

89. A **verb** is a word that predicates* *action* or *being:* as—

1. Full well they *laughed* with counterfeited glee
   At all his jokes, for many a joke *had* he.
2. All *are* but parts of one harmonious whole.

I. The predication, i. e., the assertion or statement, is made about some person or thing, and the word naming that person or thing is called the *subject* of the verb.

II. The distinguishing mark of the verb is its possession of grammatical forms to denote varieties of *person*, *number*, *time*, and *mode of predication*.

II. Classes of Verbs.

90. Verbs are divided into two classes: I. Transitive. II. Intransitive.

91. A **transitive**† **verb** is one that denotes an action terminating on some object: thus—

1. Richard *struck* the ball—[action terminating on the object named, "ball"].
2. Milton *wrote* Paradise Lost—[action terminating on the object named, "Paradise Lost"].

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* "To predicate," from Latin *prædicare*, to tell, assert, declare, or make known.

† "Transitive" is from Latin *trans*, over, and *ire*, to go=going or passing over,—the idea being that the action, instead of being merely asserted of the subject, *passes over* and affects or terminates on some object.

92. Complement.—A transitive verb does not by itself make a complete statement; it requires a completing term, or *complement*. Some intransitive verbs, also, require a completing term, though of a kind different from that required by the transitive verb. (See § 94.)

The *complement* of any verb is the word or words required to complete the statement. The complement of a transitive verb is called its *object:* as, "ball," "Paradise Lost," in § 91.

I. The object of a transitive verb is always a noun (or its equivalent) in the objective case.

II. Every transitive verb is an *incomplete verb*, or a verb of *incomplete predication.* Thus "Solomon built—" is not a complete statement. We ask, "Built what?" The statement may be completed in this way: "Solomon built *the Temple.*" Here the complement of the transitive verb "built" is the object "Temple," a noun in the objective case.

93. An **intransitive verb** is one that denotes (1) a *state* or *condition*, or (2) an action not terminating on an object: as—

1. Children *sleep*—[state or condition].
2. The sea-bird *rises* as the billows *rise*—[action not terminating on an object, but affecting the *agent* only].

94. Complement.—Most intransitive verbs make complete statements; but there are a few intransitive verbs of incomplete predication (as *be*, *become*, *seem*, *look*, *appear*, *smell*, *feel*, and the like); these require as complement either a predicate *noun* or a predicate *adjective:* thus—

1. Mary is *beautiful*—[adjective-complement of the verb "is"].
2. Elizabeth was *queen*—[noun-complement of "was"].
3. A boy becomes a *man*—[noun-complement of "becomes"].
4. *Cheerful* he seemed, and gentleness he loved—[adjective-complement of "seemed"].
5. Macbeth looked *pale*—[adjective-complement of "looked"].

6. Henry VIII. appeared every inch a *king*—[noun-complement of "appeared"].
7. The rose smells *sweet*—[adjective-complement of "smells"= the rose *is* sweet to the smell].

NOTE.—Verbs of this class have been variously designated *neuter* verbs, *copula* verbs, and *apposition* verbs; but there is no need of a special designation for them. They are simply intransitive verbs *of incomplete predication*.

95. Double Use.—Many verbs expressing action may be used either transitively or intransitively, but with a different meaning in each case: thus—

1. The baby *speaks* already—[intransitive].
   The man *speaks* several languages—[transitive].
2. The ship *sinks*—[intransitive].
   The pirate *sinks* the ship—[transitive].

I. In the first examples the action denoted by the verb ("speaks") is asserted in an indefinite or general manner; in the transitive use the action is narrowed down to a particular application ("speaks several languages").

II. In the second examples the verb used transitively signifies to *cause to do* that which the intransitive verb expresses: "sinks the ship"=*causes* the ship to sink.*

96. An auxiliary verb is one used to assist in conjugating other verbs: as, *shall, may, should.*

NOTE.—For the definition of conjugation, see § 140. The auxiliary verbs do not form a class distinct from verbs transitive or intransitive, but are themselves either transitive or intransitive.

NOTES ON THE CLASSIFICATION OF VERBS.

I. **Compounds.**—Many intransitive verbs when followed by particular prepositions become transitive and take an object. Thus—

The baby *laughs.*
We *laughed at* the clown.

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* This example belongs to a numerous class of verbs which some grammarians have called *causatives*.

In such instances the preposition seems to be so closely united in meaning with the verb as to form a kind of compound verb. Care should be taken, however, not to confound such compounds (which have a transitive force) with intransitive verbs followed by an ordinary prepositional phrase: as, "The bird sang *on the bough.*" The test of a real compound is that the verb may be used in the passive voice, the object of the preposition becoming the subject of the verb. Thus: the "Robbers *fell-upon* him" (active); "He *was fallen-upon* by robbers" (passive).

II. **Reflexive Verbs.**—Transitive verbs, when followed by the reflexive pronouns, *myself*, *himself*, etc., are said to be used *reflexively;* that is, the agent is spoken of as acting on himself. In the case of many transitive verbs we have almost ceased to repeat the pronoun, and so the verb seems complete without an object. I *wash* [myself], the cow *feeds* [herself], he *awakes* [himself], are used intransitively; but I *wash* the floor, you *feed* the cattle, he *awoke* me, are used transitively.

III. **Cognate Objective.**—Some intransitive verbs take as complement a noun in the objective case, with a meaning akin to that of the verb: as, "to run a *race*," "to die the *death*," etc. An object of this kind is called the *cognate* object.

EXERCISE 6.

Assign each verb to its class transitive or intransitive:

1. The general sent a message. 2. The wild cataract leaps in glory. 3. I shot the albatross. 4. Some murmur when their sky is clear. 5. I thought ten thousand swords must have leaped from their scabbards, to avenge even a look that threatened her with insult. 6. There are more worlds than one. 7. How pale you look! 8. Richard reads a book. 9. Robert reads well. 10. He was a man, take him for all in all, I shall not look upon his like again. 11. Whatever is is right. 12. Where heaves the turf in many a mouldering heap. 13. We all rejoiced at his success. 14. The ship struck on a rock. 15. I struck myself with a hammer. 16. He struck the ball hard. 17. He has not shaved this morning. 18. The barber shaved me yesterday. 19. Get your umbrella. 20. Get out of my way. 21. I withdraw my claim. 22. The deputation withdrew. 23. Every one laughed. 24. They laughed him to scorn. 25. He ran a race. 26. He ran a thorn into his finger. 27. Keep where you are. 28. Keep your place. 29. He roused up at the sound. 30. He launched out into all sorts of extravagance. 31. The horsemen spread over the plain.

III. Verbals.—Infinitives and Participles.

Note.—Before proceeding to consider the grammatical forms of the verb, it will be convenient to notice two kinds of verb-like words, or verbals, which are much used in the formation of the English verb.

97. The **verbals** are verb-forms, partaking of the nature of the verb, and having in addition the use of some other part of speech.

98. The verbals are of two kinds: I. Infinitives. II. Participles.

I. Infinitives.

99. The **infinitive** is a verbal noun. It merely *names* the action or state which the verb *asserts:* as, *to read, reading.*

100. There are two simple forms of the infinitive:

1. The verb in its simplest form, and generally preceded by the preposition *to:* as, *to walk, to run.*
2. The *infinitive in ing*, called the *gerund.*

I. "Infinitive" signifies *unlimited*—that is, unlimited by person and number, and hence incapable of predication. In contrast with the infinitive a verb-word that expresses predication is called a *finite* verb, i. e., one limited by person and number.

II. The infinitive is often spoken of as a *mood*, but this is to imply that the infinitive is, in the full sense, a verb, which it is not; for it lacks the distinguishing mark of a verb, namely, the function of *asserting.* The infinitive has, indeed, some of the properties of the verb—for example, it may take an object: as, "To read good *books* is profitable"—but its principal use is as a noun.

III. It is the usual practice to employ the infinitive with the prefix *to* in order to designate any particular verb. Thus the word which asserts the action *writing* is called the verb *to write;* the word which asserts *being* is called the verb *to be.* By this it is not to be understood that the words *to write, to be*, are them-

selves verbs, but merely that they are *names* of the action or state *asserted* by the verb.

IV. In form the gerund is identical with the present participle, but is distinguished from that verbal by having the use of a noun. Thus, "I like *reading*" (=I like to read). "You will be rewarded for *studying* mathematics."

101. The **root** of a verb is its simple form as seen in the infinitive without the prefix *to:* as, *write, read, stand.*

The term **root-infinitive** will be used to denote the simple infinitive without *to*, its so-called *sign.** This form is much employed in making the compound tenses.

II. Participles.

102. The **participle** is a verbal adjective. It shares or *participates* in the nature both of the verb and of the adjective: thus—

1. The water is *running*. Water *running* through a gravelly soil is clear.
2. The good are *loved*. Warren died *loved* by all.

103. There are two participles formed by inflection—the *present participle* and the *past participle.*

I. The **present participle** of all verbs is formed by suffixing **ing** to the root: as, *walk, walking; write, writing.*

II. The **past participle** is generally formed by suffixing **ed** to the root: as, *walk, walked.* But some verbs do not form their past participle in this way: as, *write, written; tell, told.* Such verbs are called *irregular* (see § 141).

IV. GRAMMATICAL FORMS OF THE VERB.

104. The **grammatical forms** of the verb are: I. VOICE. II. MOOD. III. TENSE. IV. PERSON. V. NUMBER.

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* For the origin of the infinitive with *to*, see Appendix, page 252.

105. How denoted.—These forms are denoted in four ways:

1. By **inflection**: as, "Thou lov*est*;" "He love*s*;" "We lov*ed*."
2. By **radical change**: as, "She *tells*;" "She *told*."
3. By **auxiliaries**: as, "We *have* loved;" "They *will* love."
4. By **grammatical relation**; that is, by reference to the grammatical forms of the *subject*, with which the verb agrees. Thus in the sentence "*I* walk," the verb "walk" is parsed as in the first person, singular number, because its subject "I" is in that person and number; but in "*They* walk," "walk" is parsed as in the third person plural.

I. VOICE.

106. Voice is a grammatical form of the transitive verb expressing whether the subject names the actor or the recipient of the action.

There are two voices: I. THE ACTIVE VOICE. II. THE PASSIVE VOICE.

107. Active.—A verb in the active voice represents the subject as acting upon an object: as—

Watt *invented* the steam-engine.

108. Passive.—A verb in the passive voice represents the subject as receiving an action: as—

The steam-engine *was invented* by Watt.

The passive voice is formed by uniting with the past participle of any transitive verb the various parts of the auxiliary verb *to be*. Thus—

I *am struck*. The Persians *were defeated*. They *will be seen*.

I. The passive voice is a grammatical expedient for converting the object of a transitive verb into its subject. What in the active voice is represented as the *object*, receiving or enduring

the action expressed by the verb, becomes the *subject*, but is still represented as receiving or enduring the action expressed by the verb; so that in each case the same or nearly the same meaning is conveyed. Thus—

(*Active*)—The dog bit *the man* (or *him*).
(*Passive*)—*The man* (or *he*) was bitten by the dog.

II. Intransitive verbs have, strictly speaking, no passive voice; for in such verbs the action is confined to the agent (subject), and therefore no object is acted upon.

III. The English language has no inflections for the passive voice, which accordingly is denoted by *composition*, i. e., by the use of auxiliaries. In some languages, such as Latin and Greek, voice is denoted by distinctive terminations. Thus, Latin *doceo* (active)=I teach; *doceor* (passive)=I am taught.

II. MOOD.

109. Mood (or mode) is a grammatical form denoting the style or manner of predication.* Thus—

1. The earth *revolves* around the sun—(assertion of a *reality*).
2. We *may go* to Europe next year—(assertion of a *possibility*).
3. *If we go*, we will return in the autumn—(assertion of a *condition*, or *supposition*).
4. *Go* away—(assertion of a *command*).

110. Exclusive of the infinitive, there are four moods: namely—I. THE INDICATIVE. II. THE POTENTIAL. III. THE SUBJUNCTIVE. IV. THE IMPERATIVE.

111. The **indicative** mood is used in the statement of a fact, or of a matter taken as a fact.

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* "Mood," says Bain, "means the manner of the action." This is not strictly correct. The manner of the action (or state) is expressed by *adverbs*; but it is the office of the grammatical form called "mood" to denote manner of *predication*. The different moods show the manner in which the action or state expressed by the verb is connected in thought with the thing named by the subject.

I. The assertion may be respecting an actual event past, present, or future: as—

1. The Romans were victorious.
2. You are writing a letter.
3. We shall set out to-morrow.

II. The assertion may be of a supposition assumed as a fact: as—

If he did that [which he did], he was unwise.

NOTE.—This conditional form of the indicative mood is not to be confounded with the subjunctive mood.

112. The **potential** mood is used in the statement of something possible, contingent, obligatory, etc.

The potential mood expresses, not what the thing named by the subject *does* or *is*, but what it *may*, *might*, *can*, *could*, *must*, *would*, or *should do* or *be:* as—

1. James *can write* a letter.
2. We *may be* happy yet.
3. Children *should obey* their parents.

113. The **subjunctive** mood is used in the statement of something merely *thought of.* Thus—

1. If he *were* here, he would act differently.
2. Though he *slay* me, yet will I trust in him.

I. This mood is called "subjunctive," because the assertion made by means of it is always *subjoined* (as a condition, etc.) to a principal statement.

II. A verb in the subjunctive mood is generally (though not always) preceded by one of the conjunctions, *if*, *that*, *lest*, *though*, *unless*, etc. But—

(1) The conjunction is not a part of the mood itself; for an assertion may be made subjunctively by merely putting the verb or auxiliary before the subject: thus, "*Were* he"=*if* he *were;* "*Had* he *gone*"=*if* he *had gone.*

(2) The conjunctions *if*, *that*, etc., may precede the indicative mood when the verb is used to make a supposition assumed as a fact.

114. The **imperative** mood is used in the statement of a command or request: thus—

1. *Charge*, Chester, charge!
2. *Give* us this day our daily bread.

III. TENSE.

115. **Tense*** is a grammatical form of the verb denoting the time of the action or event asserted and the degree of its completeness.

116. Primary Tenses.—There are three divisions of time to which an action or event may be referred—the present, the past, and the future. Hence arise three primary or absolute tenses: I. The present. II. The past. III. The future.

117. Secondary Tenses.— An action or event may be spoken of as completed, or *perfected*, with reference to each of the three divisions of time. Hence arise three secondary or relative tenses: I. The present perfect. II. The past perfect. III. The future perfect.

The present perfect, past perfect, and future perfect tenses are formed by prefixing to the past participle of a given verb the present, past, and future tenses of the auxiliary verb *to have* in the mood required.

IV. MOODS WITH THEIR TENSES.

I. Indicative.

118. The indicative mood has all the six tenses.

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* "Tense" is derived from Latin *tempus*, time, through French *temps*.

119. The **present** tense represents an action or event as taking place in present time: thus—

I *see* the flower. You *smell* its perfume.

120. The **present perfect** tense represents an action or event as completed at the present time, or in a period of which the present forms a part: thus—

1. *I have walked* six miles to-day.
2. He *has brought* many captives home to Rome.

121. The **past** (sometimes called the *preterite*) tense represents that an action or event took place in time wholly past: thus—

1. Columbus *discovered* America.
2. I *found* her in her room reading Plato.

122. Formation.—The past tense is formed either by inflection or by radical change.

I. Regular verbs (see § 141) form their past tense by the addition of the suffix **ed** to the root; as, discover, discover-**ed**.*

II. Irregular verbs (see § 141) form their past tense in some other way; as, *break*, *broke*; *find*, *found*.

123. The **past perfect** tense represents a past action or event as completed at or before a certain past time: thus—

1. I *had written* three letters before breakfast yesterday.
2. The steamer *had left* when the mail arrived.

124. The **future** tense represents an action or event as yet to take place: thus—

I *will* see you again, and your hearts *shall* rejoice.

---

* The inflection **ed**, used to form the past tense of all regular verbs, represents a more primitive *dede*=*did*, the past tense of *do:* hence, "I loved"=I love-*did*.

The future tense is formed by combining the auxiliaries *shall* or *will* with the root-infinitive of a given verb.

The auxiliary verb "shall" is a remnant of an ancient verbal root, meaning *to owe;* "will" is a tense form of the verb *to will, to desire.* In Anglo-Saxon, *ic sceal* and *ic wille* were followed by an infinitive: thus, "ic sceal niman," that is, literally, *I owe to take;* "ic wille niman," *I will to take.*

125. The **future perfect** tense represents that an action or event will be completed at or before a certain time yet future: thus—

I *shall have finished* my letter by noon.

II. Potential.

126. The potential mood has four tenses: the present, the present perfect, the past, and the past perfect.

These so-called "tenses," however, by no means represent the relations of *time* which their names denote.

127. The **present** potential is formed by joining the auxiliaries *may, can,* or *must* with the root-infinitive of a given verb.

I. This tense denotes the present *power, possibility, liberty,* or *necessity* of an action or event either *present* or *future:* as—

You may leave [now]. It may rain [to-morrow]. The boy can write [now]. She must go [now or next week].

II. The verbs *may, can,* and *must,* which are now used merely as auxiliaries of the present potential, were in early English principal or independent verbs in the indicative mood; and the infinitive (without *to*) was dependent on them. Thus: "I may walk"=I *may** (or *am able*) *to* walk. "You can† write"=You *are able to* write.

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* Anglo-Saxon, *mægan,* to be able.
† Anglo-Saxon, *cunnan,* to know how (and hence to be able).

128. The **present perfect** potential denotes present *possibility*, *liberty*, or *necessity*, with respect to an action or event regarded as past: as—

He *may have written*=*It is possible* that he *wrote* or *has written*.

I *must have written* yesterday=It *is* (now) a matter of necessity that I *wrote* yesterday.

129. The **past** potential is formed by joining the auxiliaries *might*, *could*, *would*, or *should* with the root-infinitive of a given verb.

I. "Might" is the past tense of *may*; "could," of *can*; "would," of *will*; and "should," of *shall*.

II. This tense expresses a variety of meanings. Thus, it may denote—

1. A past *possibility*: as—

I *could* not *reach* the train, for I was delayed by the way.

2. A present *possibility* or *liberty*: as—

You might *oblige* me, if you *would*.

3. A future *contingency*: as—

I *should return* next week, if I were to leave to-day.

4. A *customary past action*: as—

There *would* she *sit* and *weep* for hours.

5. A *duty* independent of time: as—

Children *should obey* their parents.

130. The **past perfect** potential denotes ability, possibility, or liberty, with respect to some past action or event which (it is *implied*) was not performed or did not occur: as—

I could have helped you, if you had asked me [i. e., I *was able* to help you, but (impliedly) I *did not*, because you did not ask me].

III. Subjunctive.

131. The subjunctive mood has two tenses: the present and the past.

132. The **present** subjunctive is a simple tense having the same forms as the present indicative, except that the personal inflections **st** (second person) and **s** (third person) are omitted.* It is usually introduced by the conjunctions *if*, *though*, *that*, etc.

This tense often has a *future* reference; that is, it denotes a *present* uncertainty respecting a supposed *future* action or event: as—

If *I go* [=if I *shall go*], I shall go alone.
Beware lest you *fail* [=lest you *shall fail*].

133. The **past** subjunctive has the same forms as the past indicative, except that the personal inflection **st** (second person) is omitted.

The principal use of this tense is to express:

1. A supposition with respect to something *present*, and at the same time to imply a denial of the thing supposed: thus—

If I *were* rich [implied: which I *am not*], I would give freely.

It is also used to express a wish:

O *had* I the wings of a dove!

In this construction the conjunction is omitted and the subject follows the verb.

2. A consequence: as—

If it were done when 'tis done, then 't *were* well
It *were done* quickly.

IV. **Imperative.**

134. The imperative mood has only the present tense. This has respect to the time of *giving* the command, etc.; the time of its *performance* is necessarily future.

V. **Compound Verbals.**

135. The **infinitive**, in addition to its simple form, called the *present infinitive* (as, *to write*, *to walk*), has a compound

* The verb *to be* is an exception.

form, called the *perfect infinitive:* as, *to have written, to have walked.*

The infinitive present and perfect are sometimes spoken of as *tenses;* but as the infinitive cannot predicate, it can have no relation to any time in particular; and the only distinction between "present" and "perfect" as applied to this verbal is that of the *incompleteness* (indefiniteness) or the *completeness* of the action or state named by the infinitive. Thus—

(*Present* or *indefinite*)—He wishes *to write.* He wished *to write.* He will wish *to write.*

(*Perfect*)—He is said *to have written* [*already, yesterday, a year ago,* etc.].

136. The **gerund,** or infinitive in **ing,** in addition to its simple form, has a compound form, made up of the gerund of the verb *to have* and the past participle of a given verb.

(*Simple*)—I like *reading.*

(*Compound*)—Through *having lost* his book, he could not learn his lesson.

137. Participles.—Besides the present and past participles, a compound or *perfect* participle is formed by prefixing the present participle of the auxiliary *to have* to the past participle of a given verb: as, *having walked, having written.*

NOTES ON THE FORMS IN -ING.

I. **Number of Forms.** — The forms in **ing** present some difficulty from the fact that this termination is found in no fewer than four kinds of words, each of which, having a distinct function, is a distinct part of speech. These forms are—

1. The infinitive in **ing**, or gerund, which is a verbal noun. Thus—

   Parting is such sweet sorrow.

2. The noun in **ing**. Thus—

   There came a *moaning* on the wind—the *sighing* of the tempest.

3. The participle in **ing**, which is a verbal adjective. Thus—

Passing the Rubicon, Cæsar advanced on Rome.

4. The adjective in **ing**.* Thus—

A *startling* cry came from the house.
He is a man of *striking* appearance.

II. **Tests.**—The following tests will aid the student in determining to which of these classes a particular **ing** form belongs:

a. The **infinitive** in **ing** (1) may be the subject or the object of a verb, (2) it may take a complement (*object*, or predicate noun or adjective), and (3) it may be preceded by a possessive adjective or possessive noun.

In (1) it resembles the noun in *ing*, and in (2) the participle; but (3) in connection with (2) is a peculiarity of the gerund alone.

Thus, in the sentence

His *making* money is no proof of merit,

"making" is a gerund: it is the subject of "is," has for its object "money," and is preceded by the possessive adjective "his."

b. The **noun** in **ing** (1) has the usual distinguishing marks of the noun; (2) it cannot, like the infinitive and the participle, take a complement; and (3) it may be preceded by the article.

In (1) it differs wholly from the adjective and participle, and in (3) it differs from all the other *ing* forms.

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* The several *ing* forms originated as follows:

1. The *infinitive* in *ing* is a corruption of the Anglo-Saxon infinitive, which in the nominative and accusative cases ended in *an*. Thus, *writan*, to write, became *writen*, *writin*, and finally *writing*. It is probable that the existence of a class of abstract nouns in *ing* (see 2 below) facilitated the change from *in* to *ing*.

2. The *noun* in *ing* is originally a modified form of the Anglo-Saxon noun in *ung:* as, *buildung* (=building), *cleansung* (=cleansing). In Anglo-Saxon there was a distinct class of nouns with this termination, and many of our nouns in *ing* are descendants of these. Many more, however, have since been formed from verbs on the analogy of these nouns.

3. The present *participle* in Anglo-Saxon ended in *ende* or *ande:* as, *lufigende* =loving, *sayande*=saying. This suffix subsequently passed through the several stages *and* (or *end*), *in*, *inge*, and finally *ing*.

4. The *adjective* in *ing* is derived from the present participle in *ing*. It is a participle that has dropped the implication of time and action, and retained only its attributive meaning. Thus, "a *charming* face," "a *cunning* boy."

Thus, in the sentence

There came a *moaning* on the wind—the sighing of the tempest,

"moaning" is a noun: it is the subject of "came," but it cannot take an object, and it is limited by the article "a."

c. The **participle in ing** (1) is an attributive word belonging to some noun, and (2) it expresses action (or state) and time.

In (1) it differs from all the other *ing* forms save the adjective, but in (2) it differs from the adjective, for that part of speech expresses quality, not action or time.

Thus, in the sentence

Passing the Rubicon, Cæsar advanced on Rome,

"passing" is a participle, because it is an adjunct of a noun ("Cæsar"), and because it expresses action and time.

d. The **adjective in ing** (1) is an attributive word belonging to some noun; (2) it admits of comparison.

In (1) it resembles the participle only; in (2) it differs from all the other *ing* forms.

Thus, in the sentence

A man of more *striking* appearance I never saw,

"striking" is an adjective: it qualifies "appearance," and, joined with "more," is in the comparative degree.*

V. NUMBER AND PERSON.

138. Number and **person** in verbs are grammatical forms expressing the agreement of a verb with its subject.

139. There are two numbers in verbs—the *singular* and the *plural*, corresponding to the numbers in nouns: as, "The *man walks;*" "The *men walk.*"

* The examination given above of the resemblances and differences in the four forms in *ing* is not exhaustive (the aim being merely to present salient characteristics as tests in classification); but enough is stated to enable the student to deduce a complete exhibit of the points of agreement and disagreement.

There are three persons in verbs, corresponding to the three persons of the personal pronouns.

Person and number in verbs are denoted almost wholly by grammatical *relation*.

I. The only inflections of person and number are:

1. **Est** (or **st**) for the second person singular (solemn and poetic style) in the present and past tenses of the indicative mood: "I *walk;*" "Thou walk*est;*" "Thou walk*edst.*"
2. **Es** (or **s**) for the third person singular of the indicative present: "She cross*es;*" "He walk*s.*"

OBS.—An old termination *th* for the third person, singular, present indicative (as, "He walk*eth*") is still employed in the solemn or poetic style, but is obsolete in common usage.

II. By the figure *enallage,** the second person plural is in ordinary discourse substituted for the second person singular: as, "*You* walk," not "*Thou* walk*est.*" It is *parsed* as in the second person plural; and when *one* person only is denoted, the verb and pronoun may be called "plural used for the singular."

III. The form in **st** with the pronoun *thou* is still used in the solemn or poetic style. The Society of Friends, or *Quakers*, also employ the singular number in familiar discourse, though generally without the personal ending **st**: as, "What *thou said;*" "If *thou should* come."

IV. As the imperative is the mood of commanding, and as a command must be addressed to the person who is to obey it, an imperative verb can, strictly speaking, be used only in the second person. Thus: "*Go* [*you*, sing. or pl.] to bed."

When we express our will in connection with a subject of the first or second person, we employ the following substitutes for the imperative mood:

1. The subjunctive mood: as—

   1. *Confide we* in ourselves alone.
   2. *Laugh those* that can, *weep those* that may.

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* Enallage, a figure of syntax, is the substitution of one part of speech, or of one grammatical form, for another.

2. "Let" with an infinitive: as—

Let us *pray*. *Let* him *be heard*.

The latter, however, are not imperative forms of the verbs "pray" and "hear;" but infinitives used as complements of the imperative "let" [you].

VI. CONJUGATION.

140. Conjugation is the systematic arrangement of a verb according to its various grammatical forms.

141. There are two conjugations: I. THE REGULAR. II. THE IRREGULAR. These two conjugations are distinguished by the mode of forming the past tense (indicative) and the past participle.

I. A **regular verb** is one whose past tense and past participle are formed by suffixing **ed** to its root:* as, (root) *love;* (past tense) *loved;* (past participle) *loved.*

OBS.—In suffixing *ed* care must be taken to observe the rules for spelling derivative words.

II. An **irregular verb**† is one whose past tense or past participle, or both, are not formed by suffixing **ed** to the root: as, (root) *take;* (past tense) *took;* (past participle) *taken.*

142. The **principal parts** of a verb are: I. The tense form of the PRESENT INDICATIVE. II. The tense form of the PAST INDICATIVE. III. THE PAST PARTICIPLE.

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* It would be more accurate to consider *d*, rather than *ed*, as the inflection of the past tense, since either *d* alone is added to the root (as in *love-d*, *save-d*), or when *ed* is used the *e* is a mere connecting vowel of euphony.

† A verb is called "irregular," not because in the formation of its past tense and its past participle it presents any arbitrary departure from a supposed regular or normal method, but because in the irregular conjugation the various methods of forming these parts are not reducible to one rule.

CONJUGATION OF THE AUXILIARY VERBS.

143. The auxiliary verbs are: *be*, *do*, *have*, *shall*, *will*, *can*, *may*, and *must*.

I. *Be*, *do*, *will*, and *have*, besides being used as auxiliaries, are also principal verbs, and as such have the full conjugation. The parts given below are those only that are used as auxiliaries.

II. *Shall*, *may*, *can*, and *must* are auxiliary verbs only, and are defective.

III. The only tenses that do not require the aid of an auxiliary in their formation are: in the active voice, the present and past of the indicative and of the subjunctive, and the imperative mood. The passive voice is formed wholly by aid of the auxiliary *to be*.

TO BE.

AUXILIARY OF THE PASSIVE VOICE AND OF THE PROGRESSIVE FORM.*

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Present—am. *Past*—was. *Past Participle*—been.†

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1. I am,	1. We are,
2. Thou art,	2. You are,
3. He is;	3. They are.

Past Tense.

1. I was,	1. We were,
2. Thou wast,‡	2. You were,
3. He was;	3. They were.

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* See § 145.

† The forms of the verb *to be* are derived from at least two sources: *am*, *was*, *were*, etc., are from the Anglo-Saxon *wesan*, to be; *be*, *been*, etc., are from Anglo-Saxon *beon*, to be.

‡ *Wert* is sometimes used indicatively for *wast*.

Future Tense.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1. I shall *or* will be,	1. We shall *or* will be,
2. Thou shalt *or* wilt be,	2. You shall *or* will be,
3. He shall *or* will be;	3. They shall *or* will be.

Present Perfect Tense.

1. I have been,	1. We have been,
2. Thou hast been,	2. You have been,
3. He has been;	3. They have been.

Past Perfect Tense.

1. I had been,	1. We had been,
2. Thou hadst been,	2. You had been,
3. He had been;	3. They had been.

Future Perfect Tense.

1. I shall *or* will have been,	1. We shall *or* will have been,
2. Thou shalt *or* wilt have been,	2. You shall *or* will have been,
3. He shall *or* will have been;	3. They shall *or* will have been.

POTENTIAL MOOD.

Present Tense.

1. I may be,	1. We may be,
2. Thou mayst be,	2. You may be,
3. He may be;	3. They may be.

Past Tense.

1. I might be,	1. We might be,
2. Thou mightst be,	2. You might be,
3. He might be;	3. They might be.

Present Perfect Tense.

1. I may have been,	1. We may have been,
2. Thou mayst have been,	2. You may have been,
3. He may have been;	3. They may have been.

Past Perfect Tense.

1. I might have been,	1. We might have been,
2. Thou mightst have been,	2. You might have been,
3. He might have been;	3. They might have been.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.		*Past Tense.*	
SINGULAR.	PLURAL.	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1. If I be,	1. If we be,	1. If I were,	1. If we were,
2. If thou be,	2. If you be,	2. If thou were,	2. If you were,
3. If he be;	3. If they be.	3. If he were;	3. If they were.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Be (you — thou, ye).

INFINITIVES.

Present—to be. *Perfect*—to have been. (*Gerunds*)—being; having been.

PARTICIPLES.

Present—being. *Past*—been. *Perfect*—having been.

TO DO.

*Present:—Sign of the Present Emphatic and Interrogative.**

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1. I do,	1. We do,
2. Thou dost,	2. You do,
3. He does;	3. They do.

Past:—Sign of the Past Emphatic and Interrogative.

1. I did,	1. We did,
2. Thou didst,	2. You did,
3. He did;	3. They did.

When used as a principal verb:—PRINCIPAL PARTS: *present*, do; *past*, did; *past participle*, done. INFINITIVES: *present*, to do; *perfect*, to have done; (*gerunds*) doing; having done. PARTICIPLES: *present*, doing; *past*, done; *perfect*, having done.†

TO HAVE.

Present:—Sign of the Present Perfect Tense.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1. I have,	1. We have,
2. Thou hast,	2. You have,
3. He has;	3. They have.

Past:—Sign of the Perfect Tense.

1. I had,	1. We had,
2. Thou hadst,	2. You had,
3. He had;	3. They had.

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* See §§ 146, 147.

† *Do*, as used in the expression, How do you *do?* is a totally different verb: *this* "do" comes from the Anglo-Saxon verb *dugan*, to profit or prosper. Hence, How do you *do?* means, How do you *prosper?* That will *do*=That will prosper or succeed.

When used as a principal verb:—PRINCIPAL PARTS: *present*, have; *past*, had; *past participle*, had. INFINITIVES: *present*, to have; *perfect*, to have had; (*gerunds*) having; having had. PARTICIPLES: *present*, having; *past*, had; *perfect*, having had.

CAN.

Present:—Sign of the Potential Present.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1. I can,	1. We can,
2. Thou canst,	2. You can,
3. He can;	3. They can.

Past:—Sign of the Potential Past.

1. I could,*	1. We could,
2. Thou couldst,	2. You could,
3. He could;	3. They could.

MAY.

Present:—Sign of the Potential Present.

1. I may,	1. We may,
2. Thou mayst,	2. You may,
3. He may;	3. They may.

Past:—Sign of the Potential Past.

1. I might,	1. We might,
2. Thou mightst,	2. You might,
3. He might;	3. They might.

SHALL.

Present:—Sign of the Future Tense.

1. I shall,	1. We shall,
2. Thou shalt,	2. You shall,
3. He shall;	3. They shall.

Past:—Sign of the Potential Past.

1. I should,	1. We should,
2. Thou shouldst,	2. You should,
3. He should;	3. They should.

---

* "Could" is the past tense of *can*. The *l* is inserted in *could* in imitation of *would* and *should*, but it is a false analogy. The old form is *coude*.

WILL.

Present:—Sign of the Future Tense.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1. I will,	1. We will,
2. Thou wilt,	2. You will,
3. He will;	3. They will.

Past:—Sign of the Potential Past.

1. I would,	1. We would,
2. Thou wouldst,	2. You would,
3. He would;	3. They would.

When used as a principal verb:—PRINCIPAL PARTS: *present*, will; *past*, willed; *past participle*, willed. INFINITIVES: *present*, to will; *perfect*, to have willed; (*gerunds*) willing; having willed. PARTICIPLES: *present*, willing; *past*, willed; *perfect*, having willed.

MUST.

Present:—Sign of the Potential Present.

1. I must,	1. We must,
2. Thou must,	2. You must,
3. He must;	3. They must.

PARADIGM* OF THE REGULAR VERBS.

TO LOVE.

Active Voice.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Present—love. *Past*—loved. *Past participle*—loved.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1. I love,	1. We love,
2. Thou lovest,	2. You love,
3. He loves;	3. They love.

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* A *paradigm* is the full conjugation of a verb.

Past Tense.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1. I loved,	1. We loved,
2. Thou lovedst,	2. You loved,
3. He loved;	3. They loved.

Future Tense.

1. I shall *or* will love,	1. We shall *or* will love,
2. Thou shalt *or* wilt love,	2. You shall *or* will love,
3. He shall *or* will love;	3. They shall *or* will love.

Present Perfect Tense.

1. I have loved,	1. We have loved,
2. Thou hast loved,	2. You have loved,
3. He has loved;	3. They have loved.

Past Perfect Tense.

1. I had loved,	1. We had loved,
2. Thou hadst loved,	2. You had loved,
3. He had loved;	3. They had loved.

Future Perfect Tense.

1. I shall *or* will have loved,	1. We shall *or* will have loved,
2. Thou shalt *or* wilt have loved,	2. You shall *or* will have loved,
3. He shall *or* will have loved;	3. They shall *or* will have loved.

POTENTIAL MOOD.

Present Tense.

1. I may love,	1. We may love,
2. Thou mayst love,	2. You may love,
3. He may love;	3. They may love.

Past Tense.

1. I might love,	1. We might love,
2. Thou mightst love,	2. You might love,
3. He might love;	3. They might love.

Present Perfect Tense.

1. I may have loved,	1. We may have loved,
2. Thou mayst have loved,	2. You may have loved,
3. He may have loved;	3. They may have loved.

Past Perfect Tense.

1. I might have loved,	1. We might have loved,
2. Thou mightst have loved,	2. You might have loved,
3. He might have loved;	3. They might have loved.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1. If I love,	1. If we love,
2. If thou love,	2. If you love,
3. If he love;	3. If they love.

Past Tense.

1. If I loved,	1. If we loved,
2. If thou loved,	2. If you loved,
3. If he loved;	3. If they loved.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Love (you — thou, ye).

INFINITIVES.

Present—to love. *Perfect*—to have loved. (*Gerunds*)—loving; having loved.

PARTICIPLES.

Present—loving. *Perfect*—having loved.

TO BE LOVED.

Passive Voice.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.		*Past Tense.*		*Future Tense.*	
I am	loved.	I was	loved.	I shall *or* will	be loved.
Thou art		Thou wast		Thou shalt *or* wilt	
He is		He was		He shall *or* will	
We are		We were		We shall *or* will	
You are		You were		You shall *or* will	
They are		They were		They shall *or* will	

Present Perfect.		*Past Perfect.*		*Future Perfect.*	
I have	been loved.	I had	been loved.	I shall *or* will	have been loved.
Thou hast		Thou hadst		Thou shalt *or* wilt	
He has		He had		He shall *or* will	
We have		We had		We shall *or* will	
You have		You had		You shall *or* will	
They have		They had		They shall *or* will	

POTENTIAL MOOD.

Present.		*Past.*	
I may *or* can	be loved.	I might, etc.,	be loved.
Thou mayst *or* canst		Thou mightst, etc.,	
He may *or* can		He might, "	
We may *or* can		We might, "	
You may *or* can		You might, "	
They may *or* can		They might, "	

Present Perfect.		*Past Perfect.*	
I may, etc., have	been loved.	I might, etc., have	been loved.
Thou mayst, etc., have		Thou mightst, etc., have	
He may, " "		He might, " "	
We may, " "		We might, " "	
You may, " "		You might, " "	
They may, " "		They might, " "	

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present.		*Past.*	
If I be	loved.	If I were	loved.
If thou be		If thou were	
If he "		If he "	
If we "		If we "	
If you "		If you "	
If they "		If they "	

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Be (you—thou, ye) loved.

INFINITIVES.

Present—to be loved. *Perfect*—to have been loved. (*Gerunds*)—being loved; having been loved.

PARTICIPLES.

Present—being loved. *Past*—loved. *Perfect*—having been loved.

MODEL OF CONJUGATION OF IRREGULAR VERBS.

NOTE.—The mode of formation of the compound parts of an irregular verb is precisely the same as that of a regular verb; but the irregularity of the past and past participle renders it desirable to illustrate the paradigm of the verb, and to practise pupils therein.

TO SEE.

Active Voice.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Present—see. *Past*—saw. *Past Participle*—seen.

SYNOPSIS OF THE VERB "TO SEE" IN THE THIRD PERSON SINGULAR OF ALL THE MOODS AND TENSES IN THE ACTIVE VOICE.

Indicative.....He sees, he saw, he shall *or* will see, he has seen, he had seen, he shall *or* will have seen.
Potential.....He may see, he might see, he may have seen, he might have seen.
Subjunctive...If he see, if he saw.
Imperative....See (you—thou, ye).

SYNOPSIS OF THE VERB "TO SEE" IN THE FIRST PERSON PLURAL OF ALL THE MOODS AND TENSES IN THE PASSIVE VOICE.

Indicative.....We are seen, we were seen, we shall *or* will be seen, we have been seen, we had been seen, we shall *or* will have been seen.
Potential.....We may be seen, we might be seen, we may have been seen, we might have been seen.
Subjunctive...If we be seen, if we were seen.
Imperative....Be (you—thou, ye) seen.

FORMS OF CONJUGATION.

144. Besides the common style of the verb, several special modes of conjugation are used to express particular meanings. The principal of these are: (1) THE PROGRESSIVE. (2) THE EMPHATIC. (3) THE INTERROGATIVE.

I. Progressive Form.

145. The progressive form of a verb is that which represents the continuance of the action or state asserted by the verb: as, "I *am writing*;" "He *was sleeping*."

The progressive form of a verb is made by combining its present participle with the variations of the auxiliary verb *to be*.

TO LEARN.

In the Progressive Form.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.....1. I am learning. 2. Thou art learning. 3. He is learning; etc.

Past Tense.........1. I was learning. 2. Thou wast learning. 3. He was learning; etc.

Future Tense......1. I shall *or* will be learning. 2. Thou shalt *or* wilt be learning. 3. He shall *or* will be learning; etc.

Present Perfect...1. I have been learning. 2. Thou hast been learning. 3. He has been learning; etc.

Past Perfect.......1. I had been learning. 2. Thou hadst been learning. 3. He had been learning; etc.

Future Perfect....1. I shall *or* will have been learning. 2. Thou shalt *or* wilt have been learning. 3. He shall *or* will have been learning; etc.

POTENTIAL MOOD.

Present Tense.....1. I may be learning. 2. Thou mayst be learning. 3. He may be learning; etc.

Past Tense.........1. I might be learning. 2. Thou mightst be learning. 3. He might be learning; etc.

Present Perfect...1. I may have been learning. 2. Thou mayst have been learning. 3. He may have been learning; etc.

Past Perfect......1. I might have been learning. 2. Thou mightst have been learning. 3. He might have been learning; etc.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.....1. If I be learning. 2. If thou be learning. 3. If he be learning; etc.

Past Tense.........1. If I were learning. 2. If thou were learning. 3. If he were learning; etc.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.....2. Be learning, *or* do be learning; etc.

INFINITIVES.

Present.............To be learning. *Perfect*—To have been learning. (*Gerund*)—Being learning.*

PARTICIPLES.

Present.............Being learning.* *Past*—Been learning. *Perfect*—Having been learning.

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* Theoretical forms not used.

NOTES ON THE PROGRESSIVE PASSIVE.

I. A progressive form for the passive voice, in the present and past tenses indicative, is made by joining the present and past tenses indicative of the verb *to be* with the present passive participle: as—

The house is being built. The book was being printed.

These are two tenses selected from the various tense-combinations which might be made by uniting the variations of the verb *to be* with the present passive participle.* These two alone are used, because the other verb-phrases are intolerably harsh: thus, "He *shall be being loved.*"

II. An old mode of forming the progressive passive is illustrated in the phrases—

The house is building. The book is printing.

This method of combination, which consists in the union of the verb *to be* and the *gerund* of a given verb, is now little used.

III. It is important to understand the real character of such forms as "building," "printing," in the phrases given above, as these forms have sometimes been mistaken for the "present *participle* used in a passive sense." In early English these forms were written "*a*-building," "*a*-printing:" as—

"Forty-six years was this temple *abuildinge.*"—*Tyndale.*

The particle "a" in "a-building" is a contracted form of the Anglo-Saxon preposition *an*=*on* or *in:* hence, "a-building"=*in* building. From this analysis it becomes manifest that the form "building" is not the present participle, but the gerund.

It results that the mode of expression exemplified in "The house is, was, will be *building*" (if regarded as elliptical for "The house is, etc., *a-building*"), is perfectly grammatical. It is good native English, and is preferable to the combination "The house is being built;" and on these grounds it is a loss that this form, under an erroneous notion of its origin, is now all but obsolete.

* These two tense forms are of comparatively recent introduction (they came into use less than a century ago), and by some are deemed bad English. They are, however, freely used by many of the best writers, and may be regarded as established.

II. **Emphatic Form.**

146. The emphatic form of a verb is made by joining *do* and *did* with the infinitive (without *to*): as, "I *do* learn." "I *did* learn."

This combination is found only in the present and the past indicative (active), and in the imperative.

Present.—I do learn, thou dost learn, he does learn, etc.
Past.—I did learn, thou didst learn, he did learn, etc.
Imperative.—Do learn.

III. **Interrogative Form.**

147. The interrogative form is that which is used in asking a question: as, "Can he see?" "Shall he be punished?"

This form is used in the indicative and potential moods.

I. A verb is conjugated interrogatively by (1) placing the subject after the verb: as, "Hearest *thou?*" or (2) by placing the subject between the auxiliary and the verb; as, "May *we* go?" or (3) by placing the subject after the first auxiliary when two or more auxiliaries are used: as, "Could *he* have called?"

II. In common usage, the present and the past of the indicative mood are rendered interrogative by the use of *do* and *did*, with the subject following: as, "Do you hear?" "Did you hear?"

TO SEE.

IN THE INTERROGATIVE FORM.

Active Voice.

INDICATIVE MOOD.—See I, *or* do I see? Saw I, *or* did I see? Shall *or* will I see? Have I seen? Had I seen? Shall *or* will I have seen?

POTENTIAL.—May I see? Might I see? May I have seen? Might I have seen?

Passive Voice.

INDICATIVE MOOD.—Am I seen? Was I seen? Shall I be seen? Have I been seen? Had I been seen? Shall *or* will I have been seen?

POTENTIAL.—May I be seen? Might I be seen? May I have been seen? Might I have been seen?

148. Mode of Negation.—A verb is conjugated *negatively* by placing the adverb *not* immediately after it, or after the first auxiliary: as, "They *come not*;" or "They *do not come*;" "He *cannot return*;" "They *will not be governed*."

I. The negative *not*, however, precedes the participles and the infinitives: as, *not being loved; not to see;* (gerund) *not seeing.*

II. A verb is conjugated *interrogatively and negatively* by placing the subject followed by *not* immediately after the verb, or after the first auxiliary: as, "*Comes* he *not?*" or, "*Does* he *not come?*" "*Might* he *not improve?*" The negative-interrogative form is used only in the indicative and potential moods.

OBS.—There is another mode of placing the negative: thus, "Do not I move?" contracted into "Don't I move?" The following distinction exists: if the negative is *before* "I," the phrase is conversational or familiar: as, "Do not I move?" or "Don't I move?" if the negative is *after* "I," the phrase is energetic or emphatic: as, "Do I *not* move?"

III. The progressive form also may be conjugated negatively and interrogatively: as, "I am not writing;" "Might they not have been sleeping?" etc.

VERBS—DEFECTIVE, UNIPERSONAL, AND REDUNDANT.

149. A **defective** verb is one that lacks one or more of its principal parts. The defective verbs are—

1. *Can, may, shall, will* (with their variations), and *must*, already treated as auxiliaries.
2. *Ought, beware.*

OBS.—*Ought* is the proper past tense of *owe;* but "I *ought*," "he *ought*," etc., have come to be used independently (and like *must*, without distinctions of person, number, or tense), with the meaning, "It is my *duty*" (what is *due* by me); "It is his *duty*," etc. The regular past of *owe* is *owed.*

150. A **unipersonal** verb is a verb used in but one person, namely, the third person singular.*

Of unipersonal verbs there are two kinds:

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* Sometimes these are called *im*personal, as though they had *no* person; but *uni*personal is a more appropriate term.

1. Those asserting natural phenomena: as, "It rains;" "It will rain;" "It snows."
2. The forms "methinks," "methought." "Methinks" is composed of "me" (i. e., *to me*), the indirect object, and "thinks," meaning *seems*. The subject of the verb "thinks" is the clause following: as, "Methinks [that] *I hear a voice*"="That I hear a voice *seems* to me," or "*It* seems to me *that I hear a voice*."

OBS.—"Thinks" is from the Anglo-Saxon verb *thincan*, to seem, or appear, not from our common verb *to think*.

151. A **redundant** verb is one that presents double forms of the past tense or past participle, or both: as, *sang, sung; got, gotten*.

IRREGULAR VERBS.

152. In the Appendix (page 244) will be found a list of about two hundred irregular verbs—comprising all that belong to this class, except a few compounds.

Verbs belonging, in the strict sense, to the irregular (old, or strong) conjugation may be subdivided into the following classes:

CLASS 1.—Root-vowel modified for past, and *en* or *n* added for participle: as—

Root.	*Past.*	*Participle.*
break	broke	broken
give	gave	given
draw	drew	drawn

CLASS 2.—Root-vowel modified for past, and no suffix in participle: as—

Root.	*Past.*	*Participle.*
begin	began	begun
find	found	found
stand	stood	stood

CLASS 3.—Regular in past; irregular in participle: as—

Root.	*Past.*	*Participle.*
lade	laded	laden
show	showed	shown

GENERAL REVIEW OF THE VERB.

A.

TABLE FOR BLACKBOARD.

- **Classes**
  - TRANSITIVE.
  - INTRANSITIVE.
- **Gram. Forms**
  - VOICE
    - Active.
    - Passive.
  - MOOD
    - Indicative.
    - Potential.
    - Subjunctive.
    - Imperative.
  - TENSE
    - Present—Present perfect.
    - Past—Past perfect.
    - Future—Future perfect.
  - PERSON
    - First.
    - Second.
    - Third.
  - NUMBER
    - Singular.
    - Plural.
  - VERBALS
    - Infinitive
      - Infinitive
        - Present.
        - Perfect.
      - Gerund
        - Present.
        - Perfect.
    - Participle
      - Present.
      - Past.
      - Perfect.
- **Conjugation**
  - REGULAR.
  - IRREGULAR.
- **Inflections**
  - -s (or -es).....present indicative, third singular.
  - -st (or -est)...present indicative, second singular.
  - -ed ....past indicative and subj. and past part.
  - -ing ....present participle and gerund.

B.

TOPICAL ANALYSIS.

I. Definition of Verb.

1. PREDICATION.
2. SUBJECT.
3. DISTINGUISHING MARKS OF THE VERB.

II. Classes of Verbs.

1. TRANSITIVE DEFINED.
   - *a.* Complement.
   - *b.* Object.
2. INTRANSITIVE DEFINED.
   - Characteristics.
3. VERBS OF DOUBLE USE.
4. AUXILIARIES.

III. Verbals.

1. INFINITIVES.
   - *a.* Infinitive defined.
   - *b.* Simple infinitive.
   - *c.* Gerund.
2. PARTICIPLES.
   - *a.* Present—how formed.
   - *b.* Past—how formed.
   - *c.* Root.

IV. Grammatical Forms of the Verb.

1. VOICE DEFINED.
   - *a.* Active defined.
   - *b.* Passive defined.
2. MOOD DEFINED.
   - Number of moods.
3. TENSE DEFINED.
   - *a.* Primary tenses.
   - *b.* Secondary tenses.
   - *c.* Tenses of the indicative.
   - *d.* Tenses of the potential.
   - *e.* Tenses of the subjunctive.
   - *f.* Tenses of the imperative.
4. COMPOUND INFINITIVES AND PARTICIPLES.
   - *a.* Simple infinitive.
   - *b.* Compound infinitive.
   - *c.* Simple gerund.
   - *d.* Compound gerund.
   - *e.* Participle present.
   - *f.* Participle past.
   - *g.* Participle perfect.

5. NUMBER AND PERSON.
    a. Number—singular, plural.
    b. Persons—number of.
    c. How denoted.
    d. Inflections.

V. Conjugation.

1. NUMBER OF CONJUGATIONS.
    a. Regular defined.
    b. Irregular defined.
2. DEFECTIVE VERB DEFINED.
3. UNIPERSONAL VERB DEFINED.
4. REDUNDANT VERB DEFINED.
5. NUMBERS OF IRREGULAR VERBS.

WRITTEN REVIEWS.

I.

1. Write a sentence, and draw one line under the subject and two lines under the verb.

2. Define transitive verb.

3. Write a sentence containing a transitive verb, a subject, and an object.

4. Define intransitive verb.

5. Write a sentence containing an intransitive verb.

6. What kind of verbs can by themselves make complete statements?

7. What is meant by an intransitive verb of incomplete predication? Illustrate by a sentence.

8. Define verbals, state their two divisions, and give examples.

9. Change the following verbs from the *active* to the *passive* voice, preserving the full sense:

1. Dr. Livingstone has explored a large part of Africa.
2. Paul Revere carried to Lexington the news of the intended attack by the British.
3. The first fresh dawn awoke us.
4. The people of Lynn manufacture great quantities of shoes.
5. No one has yet reached the North Pole.

II.

1. Enumerate the four inflected forms of the English verb, and state their use.

2. Are there in English any *inflected* forms for the passive voice?

3. Does "mood" denote manner of *action* or manner of *predication?*

4. Enumerate the principal auxiliaries of the potential mood.

5. What is the original meaning of "shall?"

6. What part of the verb is "take" in the verb-phrase "I shall *take?*"

7. What is the original meaning of the inflection *ed* of the past tense?

8. What differences of form are there between a verb in the indicative mood and a verb in the subjunctive mood?

III.

1. Enumerate the principal auxiliary verbs, and state their use.

2. What are the four forms in *ing?* Give an example of each.

3. What are the only personal inflections of the English verb?

4. Explain the term "redundant verb."

5. From how many sources are the parts of the verb *to be* derived?

6. Write a synopsis of the verb *to walk* in the third person, singular, indicative mood, negative-interrogative form.

7. What is the meaning of the second "do" in "How do you *do?*"

8. What rules of spelling apply in forming the following derivatives: *deceive+ed+ing? verify+ed+ing? obey+ed+ing? die+ed+ing?*

9. Give a written statement of the grammatical forms of the verbs in the following passage from Milton's "Paradise Lost:"

> Of man's first disobedience, and the fruit
> Of that forbidden tree whose mortal taste
> Brought death into the world and all our woe,
> With loss of Eden, till one greater Man
> Restore us, and regain the blissful seat,
> Sing, heavenly Muse, that on the secret top
> Of Oreb, or of Sinai, didst inspire
> That shepherd, who first taught the chosen seed
> In the beginning how the heavens and earth
> Rose out of Chaos.

CHAPTER VI.

THE ADVERB.

DEFINITION—CLASSIFICATION—INFLECTION.

153. An **adverb*** is a word used to modify the meaning of a verb, an adjective, or another adverb: thus—

(*Verb*) The lowing herd WINDS *slowly* o'er the lea.
(*Adjective*) Ye quenchless stars! so *eloquently* BRIGHT.
(*Adverb*) One who loved not wisely, but *too* WELL.

The office of the adverb is to modify the meaning of a word denoting an action or an attribute, by connecting with that word some condition or circumstance—as of *time*, *place*, *manner*, etc.

The verb expresses action, and adjectives and adverbs express attributes: hence the adverb qualifies three parts of speech—

1. The verb, expressing *action*.
2. The adjective, denoting an *attribute*.
3. The adverb, denoting an *attribute of another attribute*.

154. Classification.—As regards their use in a sentence, adverbs are of four kinds: I. SIMPLE. II. CONJUNCTIVE. III. INTERROGATIVE. IV. MODAL.

Under the adverb may also be considered the kind of words termed *responsives*. (See § 161.)

155. A **simple** adverb is one that merely modifies the word with which it is used: as, "We arrived *yesterday*;" "You are *always* ready."

156. A **conjunctive** (or *relative*) adverb is one that not

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* *Adverbium*, from *ad* (to) and *verbum* (verb), the name "adverb" implying a word attached to a verb.

only modifies the word with which it is used, but connects the clause in which it occurs with the rest of the sentence: thus—

1. Come *where* my love lies dreaming.
2. We know not *whence* it cometh or *whither* it goeth.

The office filled by a conjunctive adverb in a sentence is analogous to the function of the relative pronoun; and as the relative pronoun refers to an antecedent, so the conjunctive adverb refers to some preceding term of the nature of a demonstrative, expressed or understood. Thus—

1. *There where* a few torn shrubs the place disclose.
2. Come [*then*] *when* you are ready.

157. The following words are conjunctive adverbs:

when	**whence**	**whereby**	**whereat**	**whenever**
where	**why**	**wherefore**	**while**	**as***
whether	**wherein**	**whereon**	**whereafter**	**than**

158. An **interrogative** adverb is one by which a question is asked: as—

1. Mother, oh! *where* is that radiant shore?
2. *When* shall we three meet again?

159. A **modal** adverb is one that denotes in what manner a thought is conceived by the speaker: as—

(*Affirmatively*) Thou shalt *surely* die.
(*Negatively*) It is *not* all of life to live.
(*Contingently*) *Perhaps* in this neglected spot is laid some heart.

Modal adverbs differ from all other adverbs in that they modify the whole sentence rather than some particular word or phrase in it. This fact may be taken into account as a partial qualification of the definition of the adverb.

160. Classes by Meaning.—With reference to their *meaning*, adverbs may be divided into the following classes:

* When correlative with *so*, *such*, or *as*.

1. Adverbs of **place** — answering the questions *where? whither? whence?* as, *here, there, nowhere, backwards.*
2. Adverbs of **time**—answering the questions *when? how long? how often?* as, *then, formerly, seldom, thrice.*
3. Adverbs of **manner**—answering the question *how?* as, *truly, faithfully, well, otherwise.*
4. Adverbs of **degree**—answering the question *how much?* as, *scarcely, little, enough.*
5. Adverbs of **cause**—answering the question *why?* as, *therefore, wherefore, why.*

161. Responsives.—The words *yes* and *no*—which are equivalent, the former to a responsive sentence affirmative, the latter to a responsive sentence negative—are sometimes called *responsives:* as, "Will you go?" "Yes" (=I will go); "No" (=I will not go).

These words are derived from adverbs, but in their *use* they resemble interjections. In truth, neither the responsives nor the interjections are *parts of speech*, but are entire sentences in elliptical form: they are therefore non-grammatical words.

Adverbial Phrases. — Certain combinations of words used adverbially are called *adverbial phrases:* as—

at length; at last; at best; at large; at all; at times; at hand; by and by; by turns; by chance; by no means; in that; inasmuch as; in truth; in case; from above; from below; one by one; in like manner; now and then; ever and anon; up and down; in and out; here and there; as yet; by far.

162. Comparison.—Some adverbs admit of comparison. The comparative and superlative degrees are formed in the same manner as those of adjectives: as, *soon, sooner, soonest; beautifully, more* beautifully, *most* beautifully.

The following adverbs, like the adjectives with which they correspond, are *irregularly* compared: *well, ill, badly, much, nigh* or *near, late, little, far, forth.*

NOTES ON THE ADVERB.

I. **Pronominals.**—Many of the most used adverbs have a pronominal origin, as shown in the following table:

ROOT.	MEANING.	PLACE.			TIME.	MANNER.	CAUSE.	
		IN.	TO.	FROM.				
He-	*this*	he-re	hi-ther / he-re	hen-ce	(now)	(so)		*Simple.*
The-	*that*	the-re	thi-ther / the-re	then-ce	then	thus / the	there-fore	*Simple.*
Whe-	*what*	whe-re	whi-ther / whe-re	when-ce	when	how	why	*Relative.*

II. **Adverbial "The."**—"The" in such expressions as "*the* sooner *the* better" is not the definite article *the*, but a case of the Anglo-Saxon demonstrative *that*. The older form was *thy* (compare *why*), and the meaning is, "*by what* (in what degree) sooner, *by that* (in that degree) better." "The sooner" and "the better" should be parsed as adverbial phrases. So with similar forms: as, "*the* more *the* merrier," etc.

EXERCISE 7

Select and classify the adverbs:

1. And now a bubble bursts, and now a world. 2. Night has already gone. 3. For them no more the blazing hearth shall burn. 4. She weeps not, but often and deeply she sighs. 5. Again thy fires began to burn. 6. I was daily with you. 7. Thought, once tangled, never cleared again. 8. Dulness is ever apt to magnify. 9. Where is my child? and echo answers, "Where?" 10. Here rests his head upon the lap of earth. 11. Look downward on yonder globe. 12. Come hither, my little page. 13. Onward in haste Llewellyn passed. 14. Let Norval go hence as he came. 15. I thence invoke thy aid. 16. Whence and what art thou? 17. Henceforth, to rule was not enough for Bonaparte. 18. This institution universally prevailed. 19. Isaac trembled exceedingly. 20. Think much, speak little. 21. We cannot wholly deprive them of merit. 22. The same actions may arise from quite contrary principles. 23. It was thought very strange. 24. They were completely in my power.

CHAPTER VII.

THE PREPOSITION.

163. Definition.—A preposition* is a connective word expressing a relation of meaning between a noun or pronoun and some other word: as, "The book lies *before* me *on* the desk."

I. The noun or pronoun depending on the preposition is said to be *governed* by it, and is in the objective case.

II. A preposition connects *words*, but it shows the *relation* between some *thing* and (1) some other *thing*, or (2) some *action*, or (3) some *attribute*. Thus, in the sentence, "I saw a man in a boat," "in" is a preposition, and marks the relation (of place) in which the *man* stands to the *boat*.

In the sentence, "The boat went down the stream," "down" is a preposition, and marks the relation (of direction) which the action of *going* bears to the *stream*.

In the sentence, "Honey is sweet to the taste," "to" denotes the relation (of *nearness*) of *taste* to the attribute *sweet*.

III. The equivalents of the noun (before which a preposition can be placed) are—

(1) An *infinitive:* "None knew thee BUT *to love* thee."

(2) An *infinitive in ing* (gerund): "His conduct IN *rescuing* the child was greatly praised."

(3) A *clause:* "This will depend ON *who the commissioners are*."

164. The **connection** made by a preposition is between a noun (or pronoun) and a noun, a verb, or an adjective.

1. Another *noun* (or pronoun): "There is a BOOK *on* the *table*." "Give IT *to me*."

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* The word *preposition* (*præ*, before, and *ponere*, to place) literally means placed before something; and they were so named because they were originally prefixed to the *verb* to modify its meaning. Now, however, they are usually placed before nouns or pronouns.

2. A *verb:* "James HAS RETURNED *from school.*"
3. An *adjective:* "He is FOND *of* his *book.*"

165. The **object** of a preposition is the noun or the pronoun depending on (or governed by) it. Thus—

She is far *from* the *land* where her young hero sleeps,
And lovers *around her* are sighing;
But coldly she turns *from* their *gaze* and weeps,
For her heart *in* his *grave* is lying.

I. In the common arrangement of words the preposition comes before its object. But inversions of this order are frequent, both in poetry—as, "Where echo walks the steep hills *among*"—and in prose—as, "The pen that I am writing *with*" = *with which* I am writing.

II. By *governing* the objective case is meant making it necessary that the noun or pronoun shall assume that case; just as transitive verbs control nouns and pronouns in the objective case. Owing to the absence of an objective case-form in the noun, this governing or controlling power of the preposition is not manifest in words belonging to that part of speech; but it is seen in such pronouns as possess a distinct case-form: thus, "from *him*," "to *me*," "by *us*," "among *them*."

List of the Principal Prepositions.

about	behind	in	to
above	below	into	toward }
across	beneath	cf	towards }
after	beside }	off	under
against	besides }	on	underneath
along	between	over	until
amid }	betwixt	pending	unto
amidst }	beyond	regarding	up
among }	but	respecting	upon
amongst }	by	round	with
around	down	since	within
at	excepting	through	without
athwart	for	throughout	
before	from	till	

NOTES ON THE PREPOSITION.

I. **Analysis.**—In the list of prepositions above given, the following are simple prepositions:

at	**from**	**off**	**till**	**up**
by	**in**	**on**	**to**	**with**
for	**of**	**through**		

Most of the other prepositions may, with regard to their origin, be classed as follows:

1. Prepositions formed by prefixing the preposition **a**=*on*, or **be**=*by*, to a noun or an adjective used substantively: viz.—

a-cross*	**a-mong**, or **a-mongst**	**be-low**
a-gainst	**a-round**	**be-side**, or **be-sides**
a-mid, or **a-midst**†	**a-thwart**	**be-tween**, or **be-twixt**§

Along is made up of *and*=opposite, and *long;* **since** is derived from Anglo-Saxon *sith*=late; **inside**=in+side; **outside**=out+side.

2. Prepositions formed by prefixing a preposition to an adverb: viz.—

a-bout=a (*on*)+be (*by*)+out.
a-bove=a (*on*)+be (*by*)+ove (*up*).
be-fore=be (*by*)+fore.
be-hind=be (*by*)+hind.
be-neath=be (*by*)+neath (*under*).
be-yond=be (*by*)+yond (*yonder*, or *there*).
but=be (*by*)+utan, by out, i. e., *on the outside of*, and hence *except.*
throughout=through+out.
underneath=under+neath.

3. Prepositions derived from adverbs by a comparative suffix: viz.—

af-ter, a comparative of the root *af*=of=from: that is, *more from* (a certain time, etc.).

ov-er, a comparative of the root *of*, or *uf:* that is, *more up.*

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* From French *croix*, a cross.
† Anglo-Saxon, *on mid'dum:* on+adjective *mid* in *middle.*
§ *Between* comes from *tweon*, twain, a derivative of *twa*, two.

un-der, which contains the root *in*+der (=ther), a **comparative** suffix.

II. **Prepositional Forms.** — Several words commonly classed as prepositions belong properly to parts of speech whose functions are better defined. Among these are:

1. **Except** and **save**, imperatives of the verbs *to except, to save*=to leave out.*

2. { **concerning**, **considering**, **barring**, **regarding**, **respecting**, **touching** } are present participles used absolutely, and take *objects* after them.

3. **During** (present participle of *dure*, to endure, or last) accompanies a noun in the nominative absolute: as, "*during* the night"=the night *during* or lasting. **Notwithstanding**, accompanying a noun, is in the same construction.

EXERCISE 8.

Select the prepositions:

1. The man with the gray coat fell from the top of the wall. 2. We rise at seven o'clock in the winter, and in summer at six. 3. James VI., of Scotland, was the great-grand-nephew of Henry VII. of England, the first of the Tudor line. 4. There are many proofs of the roundness of the earth. 5. The head of the gang listened in silence to the remonstrances of his subordinates. 6. His head had not been five seconds under water, when he rose to the surface and swam towards the bank. 7. He of the rueful countenance answered without delay. 8. As we walked across the bridge we saw a number of fish in the pool beneath us. 9. With patience you may succeed. 10. I have not seen him since Monday, but I expect him within an hour. 11. A brilliant meteor shot athwart the sky, and was lost behind the hill. 12. The poor bird took refuge in a hole in the oak, and died of fright. 13. Indian corn, when ripe in October, is gathered in the field by men who go from hill to hill with baskets into which they put the corn. 14. The creaking of the masts was frightful. 15. We gazed with inexpressible pleasure on those happy islands. 16. It happened one day, when going towards my boat, I was exceedingly surprised with the print of a man's naked foot on the shore.

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* Or *except* and *save* may be remnants of Latin ablatives absolute, in which *excepto* and *salvo* were used.

CHAPTER VIII.

THE CONJUNCTION.

166. A conjunction* is a word used to connect sentences or the elements of a sentence.

The elements of a sentence are (1) *words*, (2) *phrases*,† and (3) *propositions*.‡

1. *Hamilton* AND *Jefferson* were distinguished statesmen.

   The conjunction "and" unites the *words* "Hamilton" and "Jefferson" as component parts of the subject of the verb "were."

2. The sound *of falling waters* OR *of the rustling leaves* is agreeable to the ear.

   The conjunction "or" connects the two phrases "of falling waters," "of the rustling leaves," as modifiers of the noun "sound."

3. [James will come] IF [you call].

   The conjunction "if" joins the two propositions "James will come" and "you call." The first is the principal proposition, the second, "[if] you call," the subordinate proposition (or *clause*).

167. Conjunctions are divided, according to their use, into two classes: I. CO-ORDINATE CONJUNCTIONS. II. SUBORDINATE CONJUNCTIONS.

168. A co-ordinate conjunction is one that connects (1) words and phrases which have the same grammatical relation to some other word in the sentence; (2) propositions each of which is of the same rank — that is, both independent or both dependent.

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* From Latin *con*, together, and *jungere*, to join.
† See § 218.
‡ See § 219.

1. The *winds* AND the *waves* are absent there.

Here "winds" and "waves" have the same relation—that of *subject*—to "are." The conjunction "and" which connects them in construction is, therefore, a co-ordinate conjunction.

2. The boy is always running down *to the river* OR *into the woods*.

The phrases "to the river" and "into the woods" have the same relation to the verb "is running" (being adverbial phrases modifying that verb). "Or" is, therefore, a co-ordinate conjunction.

3. [He chid their wanderings] BUT [relieved their pain].

Both of the propositions connected by "but" are of the same rank—each being an independent statement. "But" is, therefore, a co-ordinate conjunction.

169. The principal co-ordinate conjunctions are:

and	**neither**	**either**	**whether**
but	**nor**	**or**	**both**

170. Correlatives.—Some conjunctions that are used in pairs are called *correlatives;* that is, conjunctions having a mutual relation.

Both—and........It is *both* yours *and* mine.
Either—or.........He is *either* a knave *or* a fool.
Neither—nor.....*Neither* the horse *nor* the carriage was injured.
Whether—or.....It matters little *whether* I go *or* stay.

171. A subordinate conjunction is one used to connect a dependent with a principal proposition.

Subordinate conjunctions never couple *words* only.

If we cannot remove pain, we may alleviate it.
I fled *because I was afraid.*

172. The principal subordinate conjunctions are:

that	**though**	**for**
if	**although**	**till**
lest	**after**	**until**
unless	**before**	**because**
notwithstanding	**since**	**except**

EXERCISE 9.

Select and classify the conjunctions:

1. Take heed lest ye fall.
2. I have cut my finger, therefore I cannot write.
3. I fear I shall fail, but I shall make the attempt.
4. I shall make the attempt, though I fear that I shall fail.
5. He speaks so low that he cannot be heard.
6. Remain where you are till I return.
7. He will neither come nor send an apology.
8. It is as cold as Iceland.
9. I know not whether to go or to remain.
10. Ask James if he is ready; and if he is ready, tell him to follow as quickly as he can.
11. He did not deserve to succeed; for he made no effort, and showed no interest.
12. I shall not go unless you call me, nor will I remain if I can avoid it.
13. I can wonder at nothing more than how a man can be idle; but of all others a scholar.
14. The precise era of the invention and application of gunpowder is involved in doubtful traditions and equivocal language; yet we may clearly discern that it was known before the middle of the fourteenth century; and that before the end of the same the use of artillery in battles and sieges, by sea and land, was familiar to the states of Germany, Italy, Spain, France, and England.
15. Whether he was combined
With those of Norway; or did line the rebel
With hidden help and vantage; or that with both
He labor'd in his country's wrack, I know not.

THE INTERJECTION.

173. Definition.—An interjection is a word which expresses an emotion, but which does not enter into the construction of the sentence: as, *Oh! Ah! Alas! Hurrah!*

NOTE.—What is further to be said respecting the interjection will be found under Syntax.

GENERAL REVIEW OF THE ADVERB, PREPOSITION, AND CONJUNCTION.

A.

TABLE FOR BLACKBOARD.

1. THE ADVERB.

Classes.. { SIMPLE. CONJUNCTIVE. INTERROGATIVE. MODAL.

Gram. Forms.....Comparison only.

2. THE PREPOSITION.

Classes......None.

Gram. Forms.....None.

3. THE CONJUNCTION.

Classes.. { CO-ORDINATE. SUBORDINATE.

Gram. Forms.....None.

B.

TOPICAL ANALYSIS.

I. Adverb Defined.

II. Classes of Adverbs.

1. SIMPLE ADVERB DEFINED.
2. CONJUNCTIVE ADVERB DEFINED.
3. INTERROGATIVE ADVERB DEFINED.
4. MODAL ADVERB DEFINED.

III. Grammatical Form.

COMPARISON—HOW FORMED.

IV. Preposition Defined.

NATURE OF THE RELATION DENOTED.

V. Government by Prepositions.

OBJECT DEFINED.

VI. Conjunction Defined.

ELEMENTS CONNECTED.

VII. Classes of Conjunctions.

1. CO-ORDINATE DEFINED.
2. SUBORDINATE DEFINED.
3. CORRELATIVE DEFINED.

C.

WRITTEN REVIEWS.

I.

1. What is the derivation of the word *adverb?*
2. What are the classes of adverbs with respect to grammatical use?
3. Write a sentence containing a conjunctive adverb.
4. Write examples of adverbs of *time*, *place*, and *negation*.
5. Explain "the" in "the more the merrier."
6. How are adverbs compared?
7. Give the origin of five adverbs derived from a pronominal root.

II.

1. Draw out in tabular form the prepositions and conjunctions:

   It is enacted in the laws of Venice,—
   If it be proved against an alien,
   That by direct or indirect attempts
   He seek the life of any citizen,
   The party 'gainst the which he doth contrive
   Shall seize one half his goods; the other half
   Comes to the privy coffer of the state;
   And the offender's life lies in the mercy
   Of the duke only, 'gainst all other voice.
   In which predicament I say thou stand'st:
   For it appears, by manifest proceeding,
   That indirectly—and directly too—
   Thou hast contrived against the very life
   Of the defendant; and thou hast incurred
   The danger formerly by me rehearsed.
   Down, therefore, and beg mercy of the duke.

2. Write sentences illustrating the use of all the simple prepositions.

III.

1. Give the etymology of the word *conjunction*.
2. What is a co-ordinate conjunction? Illustrate by examples.
3. What is a subordinate conjunction? Illustrate by examples.
4. Write a sentence containing a pair of correlative conjunctions.
5. Write out in tabular form all the conjunctions in the passage from the *Merchant of Venice*, given above.
6. Write a sentence containing two interjections.

CHAPTER IX.

USES AND PARSING OF THE PARTS OF SPEECH.

I. The Noun.

174. A noun is parsed etymologically by stating:

I. Its **class**—proper, common, or abstract.

II. Its **grammatical forms**—number, gender, and case.

The **person** of a noun need not be given unless of the first or second person.

III. Its **use.**

Teacher's Note.—The introduction, into the treatment of etymology, of the *uses* of a given part of speech—a subject which may seem to belong rather to syntax—needs a word of explanation. The English language, as we have seen, is to a very limited degree an inflected tongue: it is often impossible to determine the grammatical form of a noun (and consequently to perform even the *etymological* parsing thereof) without reference to the function of the noun in the sentence. Thus there is no visible distinction between a noun in the nominative case and one in the objective case or in the absolute construction; no difference between a noun in the objective case and one in what is, in fact, the dative case, or in the adverbial construction. Accordingly, to require pupils to assign grammatical properties to a word destitute of any sign of such properties, while at the same time leaving them ignorant as to the functional tests of grammatical form, appears to be a somewhat irrational procedure, and one that sufficiently accounts for the vague and unsatisfactory notions that pupils generally acquire respecting the important and deeply interesting study of English etymology.

It is for this reason that in the present text-book the etymological treatment of a given part of speech is supplemented by a detailed exhibit of the *functions* of said part of speech. This is not syntax any more than it is etymology—it is rather a border-land between the two. In the exercises in etymological parsing the enumeration of the properties of a word is followed by the statement of the particular *use* of the word—not in the shape of a syntactical rule, but merely by way of accounting for the word's otherwise indeterminable grammatical form.

175. There are nine uses or functions of the noun in a sentence.

I. Subject.—A noun may be in the nominative case as the *subject of a verb.*

Model for Parsing.

The bugle's note and cannon's roar the death-like silence broke.

note.........is a common noun, of the singular number, neuter gender, and nominative case—the subject of the verb "broke."

roar.........(same parsing).

EXERCISE 10.

Parse etymologically the noun-*subjects* in the following sentences:

1. Water consists of two gases.
2. Napoleon went to Egypt with forty sail-of-the-line.
3. Life's but a walking shadow.
4. Holy and heavenly thoughts shall counsel her.
5. Then rose from sea to sky the wild farewell.
6. The boy stood on the burning deck,
   Whence all but him had fled.
7. Kindness to animals is a duty of all.

II. Possessive.—A noun may be used *attributively** in the possessive case. It is then said to limit or modify the noun with which it is joined in meaning.

Model for Parsing.

The bugle's note and cannon's roar the death-like silence broke.

bugle's......is a common noun, of the singular number, neuter gender, and possessive case—limiting the noun "note."

cannon's...is a common noun, of the singular number,† neuter gender, and possessive case—limiting the noun "roar."

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* See p. 137.

† It may, however, be construed as in the plural, being an indeterminate form.

EXERCISE 11.

Parse etymologically the nouns *possessive* in the following sentences:

1. The spider's web is a wonderful piece of work.
2. Some judge of authors' names, not works.
3. See laurels on the bald first Cæsar's head.
4. This is my fathers' ancient burial-place.
5. So shall the Northern pioneer go joyful on his way,
   To wed Penobscot's waters to San Francisco's bay.
6. Progress, Liberty's proud teacher;
   Progress, Labor's sure reward.

III. Object.—A noun may be in the objective case as the *object of a transitive verb.*

Model for Parsing.

The bugle's note and cannon's roar the death-like silence broke.

silence...is an abstract noun, of the singular number, neuter gender, and objective case—the object of the verb "broke."*

EXERCISE 12.

Parse etymologically the noun-*objects* in the following sentences:

1. I met a little cottage girl.
2. The Muses haunt clear spring or shady grove or sunny hill.
3. The reindeer draws the Laplander's sledge.
4. The Laplander defies the severity of his native climate.
5. When he read the note, he shook his head, and observed that an affair of this sort demanded the utmost circumspection.
6. We carved not a line, we raised not a stone.
7. Enough, enough; sit down and share
   A soldier's couch, a soldier's fare.
8. Who would bear the whips and scorns† of time,
   The oppressor's wrong,† the proud man's contumely?†

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* The object "silence" is here in the inverted or poetic order; the usual place of an object is *after* the governing verb.

† Supply "bear." The governing verb is often *understood.*

IV. Phrase-use.—A noun may be ***joined to another word by means of a preposition.*** It is then parsed as in the objective case, depending on the preposition.

The noun and its so-called "governing" preposition form a *prepositional phrase.*

Model for Parsing.

The army crossed the river by a bridge made of pontoon-boats.

bridge.............is a common noun, of the singular number, neuter gender, and objective case—depending on the preposition "by."

pontoon-boats...is a common noun, of the plural number, neuter gender, and objective case—depending on the preposition "of."

EXERCISE 13.

Parse etymologically the nouns in the *objective case governed by prepositions:*

1. The Gauls were conquered by Cæsar.
2. We gazed with inexpressible pleasure on those happy islands.
3. The end of government is the good of mankind.
4. There came to the beach a poor exile of Erin.
5. From peak to peak the rattling crags among,
   Leaps the live thunder.
6.   Out flew
   Millions of flaming swords drawn from the thighs
   Of mighty cherubim.

V. Indirect object.—A noun may be used in the objective case as the *indirect object* of a verb. The indirect object may readily be recognized by these tests: it comes *before* a direct object, and answers the question, "For or to whom?" "For or to what?"*

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* In the earliest English there was a special inflection to denote the indirect object. This was called the dative case, which means literally the *giving* case, because this inflected form was used chiefly after such verbs as *give, lend, send*, and the like. Thus—

(*Early English*)—This king gave large gifts ministr-*um.*

(*Modern English*)—This king gave [to] the ministers large gifts.—Abbott's *Shakespearean Grammar.*

Model for Parsing.

1. We gave the man a book.
2. Socrates taught Plato philosophy.

man....is a common noun, of the singular number, masculine gender, and objective case—indirect object of the verb "gave."

Plato...is a proper noun, singular number, masculine gender, and objective case—indirect object of the verb "taught."

EXERCISE 14.

Parse etymologically the nouns used as *indirect objects:*

1. This king gave the ministers large gifts.
2. The judge granted the prisoner a full pardon.
3. Ascham taught Lady Jane Grey the Greek language.
4. Lend the poor man a dollar.
5. We sent the teacher a request.

VI. Appositive.—A noun may be used to *explain another noun.* It is then said to be an *appositive,* or to be *in apposition** with the noun which it explains, and is in the same case (nominative, possessive, or objective) as that noun.

Model for Parsing.

1. Ali reclined, a man of war and woes.

man.....is a common noun, of the singular number and masculine gender; it is in the nominative case, because "Ali," with which it is in apposition, is the subject of the verb "reclined."

2. We beheld the Mississippi, that mighty river.

river....is a common noun, of the singular number and neuter gender; it is in the objective case, being in apposition with "Mississippi," the object of the verb "beheld."

---

* From *ad,* near or alongside of, and *ponere,* to place or put. There may be *intervening* words, but no connecting words; and both words must be in the same member of the sentence.

EXERCISE 15.

Parse etymologically the nouns *in apposition* in the following sentences:

1. Next came Thomas, the boy that cleans the boots.
2. Then we saw Thomas, the boy that cleans the boots.
3. Washington, the father of his country, was the first president of the United States.
4. Whang the miller was very avaricious.
5. We admire Milton, the great English poet.

VII. Predicate Nominative.—A noun may come after, or complete the meaning of, certain intransitive or passive verbs, and yet denote the same person or thing as the subject of the verb. It is then called *the predicate nominative.*

Thus, in the sentence, "The author of this book is my brother," "brother" is in the predicate, but it is not the object of the verb, for the verb "is" asserts the identity of "author" and "brother:" so that, as "author" is in the nominative case, "brother" must be in the same case. We may say, "The author of this book is *I*" (nom. case), not "is *me*" (obj. case).

Model for Parsing.

1. Tennyson is a poet.

poet..........is a common noun, of the singular number, masculine gender, and nominative case—predicate nominative after the verb "is."

2. Washington was elected president in 1789.

president...is a common noun, of the singular number, masculine gender, and nominative case—predicate nominative after "was elected."

EXERCISE 16.

Parse etymologically the nouns that are *predicate nominatives* in the following sentences:

1. And, Saxon, I am Roderick Dhu.
2. The earth is a planet.
3. Mary still seemed a queen (=*was* a queen in seeming, or appearance).
4. King William of Prussia became Emperor of Germany in 1871.
5. He was a man, take him for all in all, I shall not look upon his like again.

VIII. Independent and Absolute.—A noun may be in the nominative case *independent* or *absolute:* thus—

1. *Horatius*, saith the consul, as thou sayest, so let it be.
2. The *storm* having ceased, we departed.

I. Nominative Independent.—In example 1, the noun "Horatius" has no grammatical dependence on any other word in the sentence. Hence it is said to be *independent*, and it is parsed as in the nominative case.

II. Nominative Absolute.—In example 2, the noun "storm" has no grammatical relation to any other word in the sentence. The sentence is not "The *storm ceased*, and we departed," or "When *the storm ceased*, we departed," but "*The storm having ceased*, we departed." The words "the storm having ceased" form a *phrase*. (See § 218.) When a noun is found in this construction, it is parsed as in the *nominative absolute*.*

Model for Parsing.

1. Mary, your lilies are in bloom.

Mary...is a proper noun, of the second person, singular number, feminine gender, and nominative case independent.

2. The river not being fordable, we had to make a great détour.

river...is a common noun, of the singular number, neuter gender, and nominative case absolute.

NOTE.—See examples for parsing under Exercise 17, page 107.

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* The author has deemed it more in accordance with the history of our language to separate the construction here called the nominative absolute from that called the nominative independent than to call the former the "nominative independent" and the latter the "nominative independent by address." The nominative absolute corresponds to the Latin "*ablative* absolute" (in Anglo-Saxon the noun in this construction was in the *dative* case), while what is here termed the nominative independent corresponds to the Latin *vocative*.

IX. Objective Adverbial.—A noun may be used in the objective case when it is employed in *the manner of an adverb* to modify a verb or an adjective, by expressing measure of time, distance, value, etc.: as—

1. We walked a *mile*.
2. You are a *foot* taller than I.
3. The battle lasted three *days*.

In this use the noun is called the *objective adverbial.**

Model for Parsing.

That pole is ten feet high.

feet...is a common noun, of the plural number, neuter gender, and objective case—objective adverbial modifying the adjective "high" (=high *by ten* feet).

NOTE.—See examples for parsing under Exercise 17, page 107.

EXERCISE 17.

A.

Parse the *italicized nouns* in the following sentences:

[Under I.-V., pages 99-101.]

1. All *men* are created equal.—*Jefferson.*
2. Then rose from *sea* to *sky* the wild *farewell.*—*Byron.*
3. Vanish'd is the ancient *splendor*, and before my dreamy *eye*
   Wave these mingling *shapes* and *figures*, like a faded tapestry.—*Longfellow.*
4. The *steed* along the *drawbridge* flies.—*Scott.*
5. I could hear my *friend* chide him for not finding out some *work*, but at the same *time* saw him put his *hand* in his *pocket* and give him *sixpence.* —*Spectator.*

---

* Many grammarians parse nouns thus used as governed by a preposition *understood* ("We walked *for* a mile;" "You are taller *by* a foot," etc.). But there is no preposition to be supplied, and there never was any. Nouns in this construction are disguised forms of early English genitives or datives—cases that were used to denote measure, time, etc. Thus, "three furlongs broad" was in Anglo-Saxon "threora *furlanga* brad," where "furlanga" is in the genitive case. So the expression "bound *hand* and *foot*" was in Anglo-Saxon "bound hand-*um* and fôt-*um* (=*as regards* or *in* hand and foot), the nouns being in the dative case.

6. Thou knowest my *praise* of *nature* most sincere,
And that my *raptures* are not conjured up
To serve *occasions* of poetic *pomp*,
But genuine, and art partner of them all.—*Cowper.*
7. Thy *name* and watchword o'er this *land*
I hear in every *breeze* that stirs,
And round a thousand *altars* stand
Thy banded party *worshippers.* — *Whittier.*
8. Whilst I was thus musing, I cast my *eyes* towards the *summit* of a *rock* that was not far from me, where I discovered one in the *habit* of a *shepherd*, with a little musical *instrument* in his *hand.*—*Addison.*
9. His *spear*, to equal which the tallest *pine*
Hewn on Norwegian *hills* to be the mast
Of some great *ammiral* were but a wand,
He walked with, to support uneasy *steps*
Over the burning *marle.*—*Milton.*
10. The gushing *flood* the *tartans* dyed.—*Scott.*
11. *Lives* of great *men* all remind us
We can make our *lives* sublime,
And, departing, leave behind us
Footprints on the *sands* of *time.*—*Longfellow.*
12. His *father's sword* he has girded on.—*Moore.*
13. *Leaves* have their time to fall
And flowers to wither at the *North Wind's* breath.—*Hemans.*
14. Then future ages with delight shall see
How *Plato's*, *Bacon's*, *Newton's* looks agree.—*Pope.*
15. The only, the perpetual dirge
That's heard there is the *sea-bird's* cry,
The mournful murmur of the *surge*,
The *cloud's* deep voice, the *wind's* low sigh.—*Pierpont.*
16. The patriarch made *Joseph* a coat of many colors.
17. Lend your *neighbors* a helping hand.
18. We forgive our friends their faults.
19. Then give *humility* a coach-and-six,
Justice a conqueror's sword, or *truth* a gown,
Or public *spirit* its great cure, a crown.—*Pope.*
20. He chooses company, but not the *squire's.**—*Addison.*

B.

[Under VI.-IX., pages 102-105.]

1. Thomson, the *poet*, was a contemporary of Hume, the *historian.*
2. The emperor *Kaoti*, a *soldier* of fortune, marched against the Huns.—*Gibbon.*

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* That is, "the squire's *company.*" The noun limited by a noun in the possessive case is often omitted, but in parsing it must be supplied as *understood.*

3. 'Tis I, *Hamlet* the *Dane.*—*Shakspeare.*
4. This is my *son*, mine own *Telemachus.*—*Tennyson.*
5. There, swinging wide at her moorings, lay
   The Somerset, British *man-of-war*—
   A phantom *ship.*—*Longfellow.*
6. Be a *hero* in the strife.—*Longfellow.*
7. Discretion is the better *part* of valor.—*Shakspeare.*
8. There were two *fathers* in this ghastly crew.—*Byron.*
9. Brevity is the *soul* of wit.—*Shakspeare.*
10. The proper study of mankind is *man.*—*Pope.*
11. The *principle* which gave a peculiar coloring to Isabella's mind was *piety.* —*Prescott.*
12. And the earth was all *rest*, and the air was all *love.*—*Shelley.*
13. Others, their blue *eyes* with tears o'erflowing,
    Stand, like Ruth, amid the golden corn.—*Longfellow.*
14. The hill-range stood
    Transfigured in the silver flood,
    Its blown *snows* flashing cold and keen.—*Whittier.*
15. *Success* being hopeless, preparations were made for a retreat.—*Alison.*
16. *Uriel*, no wonder if thy perfect sight,
    Amid the sun's bright circlet where thou sitt'st,
    See far and wide.—*Milton.*
17. Rise, crowned with light, imperial *Salem*, rise!—*Pope.*
18. With that she fell distract,
    And, her *attendants* absent, swallowed fire.—*Shakspeare.*
19. The *war* being ended, the soldiers returned to their homes.
20. Listen, my *children*, and you shall hear
    Of the midnight ride of Paul Revere.—*Longfellow.*
21. O *Caledonia!* stern and wild,
    Meet *nurse* for a poetic child.
    Land of brown heath and shaggy wood,
    Land of the mountain and the flood.—*Scott.*
22. O lonely *tomb* in Moab's land,
      O dark Bethpeor's *hill*,
    Speak to these curious hearts of ours
      And teach them to be still.—*Anon.*
23. The antechambers were crowded all *night* with lords and councillors.—*Macaulay.*
24. *Home* they brought her warrior dead.—*Tennyson.*
25. Patrick Henry was nearly six *feet* high.—*Wirt.*
26. Not without deep solicitude I saw the angry clouds gathering in the horizon, *north* and *south.*—*Everett.*
27. He that was dead came forth bound *hand* and *foot.*—*Bible.*
28. You came three *times* last *week*, but did you come the nearest *way?*
29. Awake, my *St. John*, leave all meaner things.—*Pope.*
30. *Milton*, thou shouldst be with us at this hour.—*Wordsworth.*

II. The Pronoun.

I. USES.

176. Of the nine uses of the noun, the pronoun has all except that of the *objective adverbial;* but one class of pronouns, the relatives, have an office distinct from the noun: namely, the office of a *connective:*

I. *Subject* of a verb: thus—

1. *I* know a bank whereon the wild thyme grows.
2. *We* looked on him as *he* lay wounded on the ground.
3. *Some* murmur when their sky is clear.

II. *Possessive:* thus—

1. He knows *his* rights.
2. *Whose* is this image and superscription?

III. *Object* of a verb: thus—

1. Take *her* up tenderly.
2. He taught you how you might conquer *them.*
3. *Whom* do you mean? *What* are you doing?

IV. *Indirect object:* thus—

1. Tell *him* not to vex her.
2. The master gave *them* one dollar each.

V. *Phrase* use—object of a preposition: thus—

1. To *whom* much is given, of *them* much is required.
2. With malice toward *none,* with charity for *all.*

VI. *Predicate nominative:* thus—

1. It is *I,* be not afraid.
2. Those lips are *thine.*
3. *Who* say ye that I am?

VII. *Appositive:* thus—

We *all* do fade as a flower.

Note.—This construction is rare.

VIII. *Independent* or *absolute:* thus—

1. O *Thou* that rollest above, round as the shield of my fathers.
2. *We* being mounted, the cavalcade advanced.

IX. *Connective.*—The relative pronouns serve to connect the dependent proposition, which they introduce, with some word or words in the principal statement of the sentence: thus—

1. Longfellow is the poet *who* wrote "Evangeline."
2. I had a dream *which* was not all a dream.
3. Solomon was the wisest man *that* ever lived.

In sentence 1 "Longfellow is the poet" is the principal statement; "who wrote 'Evangeline'" is a clause; the relative "who" connects the clause with the antecedent "poet."

In like manner in sentence 2 "which" connects the clause that it introduces with the antecedent "dream;" and in 3 "that" connects the clause that it introduces with the antecedent "man."

Relative "What."—The relative *what* is often parsed by separating it into *that which*, and then disposing of each of these words according to its use in the sentence. But it is preferable to parse *what* itself as subject of a verb or object of a verb (or preposition), and then treat as a whole the clause introduced by *what.**

II. PARSING.

177. Personal Pronouns.—In parsing a personal pronoun, state—

1. **Class.**
2. **Person:** first, second, or third.
3. **Gender:** (if of the 3d person).
4. **Number:** singular or plural.
5. **Case:** nominative, [possessive] or objective.
6. **Use.**

---

* *What* is simply the neuter of *who*, with its antecedent (*that*) omitted; just as the antecedent of *who* is sometimes omitted. Thus the function of *who* and of *what* is precisely alike in the sentences "*Who* steals my purse steals trash" and "*What* is done cannot be undone."

NOTE.—The forms *my*, *thy*, *his*, etc., are most readily disposed of as adjectives (or possessive adjectives); the independent forms *mine*, *thine*, etc., as possessive pronouns in the *nominative* or *objective* case, according to the construction.

178. Relative Pronouns.—In parsing a relative pronoun, state—

1. **Class.**
2. **Antecedent:** noun (or its equivalent pronoun, etc.).
3. **Person:** first, second, or third.
4. **Gender:** masculine, feminine [common], or neuter.
5. **Number:** singular or plural.
6. **Case:** nominative, possessive, or objective.
7. **Use.**

NOTE.—A relative pronoun is in the same person, gender, and number as its antecedent.

179. Interrogative Pronouns.—In parsing an interrogative pronoun, state—

1. **Class.**
2. **Gender:** masculine, feminine [common], or neuter (according to the gender of the noun that answers the question).
3. **Number:** singular or plural.
4. **Case:** nominative, possessive, or objective.
5. **Use.**

Models for Parsing Pronouns.

1. Who steals my purse steals trash: 'tis something, nothing—
'Twas mine, 'tis his, and has been slave to thousands.
But he that filches from me my good name
Robs me of that which not enriches him,
And makes me poor indeed.

who........is a relative pronoun (used independently of an antecedent),* of the third person, singular number, masculine gender, and nominative case—subject of the verb "steals."

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* Or having *he* understood, for its antecedent.

it..........(contracted *'t* in "'tis") is a personal pronoun, of the third person, singular number, neuter gender, and nominative case—subject of the verb "is."

it..........(in "*'twas*" and "*'tis*" is to be parsed in a similar manner).

mine.......is a pronominal adjective (possessive)* of the first person, singular number, masculine gender, and nominative case—predicate nominative after the intransitive verb "was."

his..........(parsed in a similar manner as to gender, case, and use).

he..........is a personal pronoun, of the third person, singular number, masculine gender, and nominative case—subject of the verb "robs."

that.......is a relative pronoun, having for its antecedent the pronoun "he," of the third person, singular number, masculine gender, and nominative case—subject of the verb "filches."

me.........is a personal pronoun, of the first person, singular number, masculine gender,† and objective case—depending on the preposition "from."

me.........is a personal pronoun, of the first person, singular number, masculine gender, and objective case—object of the verb "robs."

that........is a pronominal adjective (demonstrative),‡ of the third person, singular number, neuter gender, and objective case —depending on the preposition "of."

which.....is a relative pronoun, having for its antecedent "that;" of the third person, singular number, neuter gender, and nominative case—subject of the verb "enriches."

him.........is a personal pronoun, of the third person, singular number, masculine gender, and objective case—object of the verb "enriches."

me.........is a personal pronoun, of the first person, singular number, masculine gender, and objective case—object of the verb "leaves."

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* Or, simply, *a possessive pronoun.*

† As the person speaking, in this passage from Shakspeare's play of *Othello*, was a man, the pronoun "me" is of the masculine gender.

‡ Or, simply, a demonstrative pronoun.

2. The messenger himself revealed the treachery.

himself....is a compound personal pronoun, of the third person, singular number, masculine gender, and nominative case—in apposition with the noun "messenger."

3. O Thou* that rollest above, round as the shield of my fathers!

thou.......is a personal pronoun, of the second person, singular number, (masculine gender), and nominative case—nominative independent.

that........is a relative pronoun, having for its antecedent the pronoun "Thou," of the second person, singular number, (masculine gender), and nominative case—subject of the verb "rollest."

4. I shall not lag behind, nor err
The way, thou leading.

I............is a personal pronoun, of the first person, singular number, (gender indeterminate), and nominative case—subject of the verb "shall lag."

thou.......is a personal pronoun, of the second person, singular number (gender indeterminate), and nominative case—nominative absolute.

EXERCISE 18.

Parse etymologically the *italicized pronouns* in the following sentences:

1. *We* can show *you* where *he* lies.—*Scott.*
2. Surely, said *I*, man is but a shadow, and life a dream.—*Addison.*
3. *Each* thought on the woman who loved *him* best.—*Kingsley.*
4. *I* could hear my friend chide *him* for not finding out some work; but at the same time saw *him* put his hand in his pocket and give *him* sixpence.—*Spectator.*
5. Not to know *me* argues *yourself* unknown.—*Milton.*
6. Teach *me* thy statutes.—*Bible.*
7. There taught *us* how to live, and (oh! too high
The price for knowledge) taught *us* how to die.—*Tickell.*
8. *Methought* my request was heard, for it seemed to *me* as though the stains of manhood were passing from *me*, and *I* were relapsing into the purity and simplicity of childhood.—*Lamb.*

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* The *sun.*

9. *I* know not what course *others* may take; but as for *me*, give *me* liberty or give *me* death.—*Patrick Henry.*
10. *Who* was the thane lives yet.—*Shakspeare.*
11. *What* in me is dark,
 Illumine; *what* is low, raise and support.—*Milton.*
12. I had a dream *which* was not all a dream.—*Byron.*
13. Ah! little they think *who* delight in the strains,
 How the heart of the minstrel is breaking.—*Moore.*
14. Oh that those lips had language! Life has passed
 With me but roughly since I heard thee last.
 Those lips are *thine*—thy own sweet smile I see,
 The same that oft in childhood solaced me.—*Cowper.*
15. *Who* would fardels bear?—*Shakspeare.*
16. Roll on, *thou* deep and dark blue Ocean, roll!—*Byron.*
17. Those *who* came to laugh remained to pray.—*Goldsmith.*
18. We *two* set upon you *four*.—*Shakspeare.*
19. England *herself* will sooner treat for peace with us on a footing of independence.—*John Adams.*
20. O *ye* Romans, you are poor slaves.—*Shakspeare.*
21. *What* do you mean, *you* blockhead?
22. On these and kindred thoughts intent I lay
 In silence musing by my comrade's side,
 He [being] also silent.—*Wordsworth.*
23. *Thou* away, the very birds are mute.—*Shakspeare.*
24. God from the Mount of Sinai, *whose* gray top
 Shall tremble, *he* descending, will himself
 Ordain them laws.—*Milton.*

III. The Adjective.

I. PARSING.

180. An adjective is parsed etymologically by stating—

1. Its **class**—limiting (article, pronominal adjective, or numeral adjective) or qualifying.
2. Its **degree of comparison** (that is, if comparative or superlative, and omitting comparison if positive).
3. Its **use** (see below).

II. USES OF THE ADJECTIVE.

181. The two principal relations of the adjective are—

1. The *attributive* relation. 2. The *predicative* relation.

I. Attributive.—In the attributive relation or use the adjective is closely joined with its noun or pronoun, and is never separated from it by a verb.* Thus—

1. Now Morn, her *rosy* steps in the *eastern* clime
   Advancing, sowed the earth with *orient* pearl.
2. They the *holy* ones and *weakly*
   Who the cross of suffering bore.

I. In **parsing** an adjective in the attributive use this function need not be specified; it is enough to say that the adjective modifies the noun or pronoun [naming it] with which it is joined.

II. An adjective sometimes modifies a noun which is already modified by another adjective: as, "A *pretty wooden* bowl." Here pretty does not relate to "bowl" separately, but to the words "wooden-bowl." In such instances the remote adjective may be parsed as modifying the noun and proximate adjective as one compound term.

Models of Parsing.

1. Around the fire one wintry night
   The farmer's rosy children sat.

the.........is the definite article, modifying the noun "fire."

one.........is a limiting adjective (numeral), modifying the noun "night."

wintry....is a qualifying adjective, modifying the noun "night."

the.........is the definite article, modifying the noun "farmer's."†

rosy........is a qualifying adjective, modifying the noun "children."

2. I met a little cottage girl.

a............is the indefinite article, modifying the noun "girl."

little.......is a qualifying adjective, modifying the noun "girl" as modified by the adjective "cottage."

cottage...is a noun used as an adjective, modifying the noun "girl."

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* This is called the *attributive* use because an adjective thus employed expresses some *attribute* or property represented as inherent in the object named by the noun. The attribute or property is not *predicated* or *asserted* of the noun, but is *assumed* as belonging to it.

† Or, modifying the complex expression "farmer's rosy children."

3. They the holy ones and weakly
   Who the cross of suffering bore.

holy........is a qualifying adjective, modifying the noun "ones."

weakly....is a qualifying adjective, modifying the noun "ones."

4. His opinion would have greater weight, were it supported by some arguments of the least value.

his..........is a limiting adjective (possessive), modifying the noun "opinion."

greater....is a qualifying adjective, in the comparative degree (compared *great*, *greater*, *greatest*), modifying the noun "weight."

some.......is a limiting adjective (indefinite), modifying the noun "arguments."

least.......is a qualifying adjective, in the superlative degree (compared *little*, *less*, *least*), modifying the noun "value."

EXERCISE 19.

Parse etymologically the *italicized adjectives* in the following sentences:

1. I am fond of loitering about country churches, and this was so delightfully situated that it frequently attracted me. It stood on *a* knoll, round which *a small* stream made *a beautiful* bend, and then wound *its* way through *a long* reach of *soft meadow* scenery. *The* church was surrounded by yew-trees, which seemed almost coeval with itself. *Its tall Gothic* spire shot up lightly from among them, with rooks and crows generally wheeling about it.—*Washington Irving.*
2. There *eternal* summer dwells,
   And *west* winds with *musky* wing
   About the *cedar'd* alleys fling
   Nard and cassia's *balmy* smells.—*Milton.*
3. *Three* fishers went sailing away to the West.—*Kingsley.*
4. Roll on, thou *deep* and *dark blue* Ocean, roll!—*Byron.*
5. For of all sad words of tongue or pen,
   The *saddest* are these—"It might have been."—*Whittier.*
6. Our *sweetest* songs are those that tell of *saddest* thought.—*Shelley.*
7. Like *other dull* men, the king was *all his* life suspicious of *superior* people.—*Thackeray.*
8. And *first* review *that long, extended* plain,
   And *those wide* groves already passed with pain.—*Collins.*

9. Each ivied arch and pillar lone
Pleads haughtily for glories gone.—*Byron.*

10. If *disastrous* war should sweep *our* commerce from the ocean, *another* generation may renew it; if it exhaust *our* treasury, *future* industry may replenish it; if it desolate and lay waste *our* fields, still, under *a new* cultivation, they will grow green again, and ripen to *future* harvests. It were but a trifle, even if the wall of *yonder* Capitol were to crumble, if its *lofty* pillars should fall, and *its gorgeous* decorations be all covered by the dust of the valley. All these might be rebuilt. But who shall reconstruct the fabric of *demolished* government? Who shall rear again the *well-proportioned* columns of *constitutional* liberty? Who shall frame together the *skilful* architecture which unites *national* sovereignty with *state* rights, *individual* security, and *public* prosperity? No; if *these* columns fall, they will be raised not again. Like the Coliseum and the Parthenon, they will be destined to a *mournful*, a *melancholy* immortality. *Bitterer* tears, however, will flow over them than ever were shed over the monuments of *Roman* or *Grecian* art; they will be the remnants of a *more glorious* edifice than Greece or Rome ever saw—the edifice of *constitutional American* liberty!—*Webster.*

II. Predicative.—In the predicative use* the adjective has a double office:

1. It may be the complement of an *intransitive* verb; or of a transitive verb in the *passive voice.* It is then called the *predicate adjective.* Thus—

1. The *fields* are *green.*
2. The *nation* became *powerful.*
3. *Mary* looks *cold.*
4. Some *men* are called *happy.*

In this use the adjective relates to the *subject* of the verb; but this relation is indirect; the adjective, taken *with the verb,* expresses the *condition* of the *subject.*

In **parsing** an adjective thus used, it should be stated that it is the complement of the verb [naming it], and relates to the subject. Or it may simply be called the *predicate adjective.*

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* An adjective *in the predicative relation* must not be confounded with an attributive adjective *in the predicate,* and associated with a noun or pronoun: as, "Here are *green* fields." An adjective is in the predicative relation when it completes the sense of the verb, and is not joined directly to a noun or pronoun.

2. It may relate to a noun-complement of a *transitive* verb, and be at the same time a partial complement of the verb.

1. We call the proud *happy*.
2. The streams whereof shall make *glad* the city of God.

In this use the adjective, taken *with the verb*, expresses the *condition* of the *object*.

In **parsing** an adjective thus used, it should be stated that it is the complement of the transitive verb [naming it], and relates to the object.

Model for Parsing.

1. The fields are green.

green ....is a qualifying adjective, the complement of the intransitive verb "are," and relates to the subject "fields" (or, it is the predicate adjective after "are," and relates to "fields").

2. Some men are called happy.

some.........is a pronominal adjective, and modifies the noun "men."

happy.......is a qualifying adjective, the complement of the passive verb "are called," and relates to the subject "men."

3. Leave the lily pale, and tinge the violet blue.

pale......is a qualifying adjective, the complement of the transitive verb "leave," and relates to the object "lily."

blue.......is a qualifying adjective, the complement of the transitive verb "tinge," and relates to the object "violet."

EXERCISE 20.

Parse etymologically the *italicized adjectives* in the following sentences:

1. The rainbow comes and goes,
   And *lovely* is the rose;
   The moon doth with delight
     Look round her when the heavens are *bare;*
   Waters on a *starry* night
     Are *beautiful* and *fair*.—*Wordsworth.*

2. "O, sir," said the *good* woman, "he was such a likely lad—so *sweet-tempered*, so *kind* to every one around him, so *dutiful* to *his* parents.—*Washington Irving.*
3. The stately homes of England,
   How *beautiful* they stand.—*Hemans.*
4. Why call ye me *good?*—*Bible.*
5. Or, if a path be *dangerous* known,
   The danger's self is lure alone.—*Scott.*
6. Come when the heart beats *high* and *warm*.—*Halleck.*
7. Thus, from afar, each dim-discovered scene
   More pleasing seems than all the past have been.—*Campbell.*
8. By heaven, I change
   My thought, and hold thy valor *light*,
   As that of some vain carpet-knight.—*Scott.*

IV. The Verb.

182. In regard to their use in sentences, verbs may be divided into two classes: 1. Finite verbs. 2. The verbals.

The radical distinction between verbs and verbals is that verbs are used *in predication*, and that verbals are *not* so used.

I. FINITE VERBS.

183. Parsing.—A finite verb is parsed as agreeing with its subject in person and in number.* Its etymology is given thus:

1. Its **conjugation**—regular or irregular.
2. Its **class**—transitive or intransitive.
3. Its **voice**—active or passive (if transitive; no mention is made of voice in intransitive verbs).
4. Its **mood**—indicative, potential, subjunctive, or imperative.
5. Its **tense**—present, past, future, etc. (In the imperative, tense may be omitted.)
6. Its **person** and **number**—first, second, or third, and singular or plural, according to the person and number of the subject.

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* This coincides with the syntactical rule for verbs: its introduction here is necessary, since, from the paucity of personal endings in English verbs, the person and number of a verb can generally be determined only by reference to the person and number of its subject.

Note.—If a verb is in the progressive, interrogative, or emphatic form, this may be noted; if in the common form, nothing need be said as to *form*.

Models for Parsing.

1. Tell me not in mournful numbers
   Life is but an empty dream.

tell................is an irregular transitive verb,* active voice, imperative mood, second person, singular number, agreeing with its subject *you*, understood.

An abbreviated form like the following may be found serviceable: "Tell," a verb, irregular, transitive, active, imperative, second singular, agreeing with *you* understood.

is..................is an irregular intransitive verb, indicative mood, present tense, third person, singular number, agreeing with its subject "life."

2. The boast of heraldry, the pomp of power,
   And all that beauty, all that wealth e'er gave,
   Await alike th' inevitable hour.
   The paths of glory lead but to the grave.

gave..............is an irregular transitive verb, active voice, indicative mood, past tense, third person, singular number, agreeing with its subject "wealth."

await.............is a regular transitive verb, active voice, indicative mood, present tense, third person, plural number, agreeing with its subjects "boast," "pomp," and "all."

lead...............is an irregular intransitive verb, indicative mood, present tense, third person, plural number, agreeing with its subject "paths."

3. I do believe that the lad was telling the truth.

do believe......is a regular transitive verb, emphatic form, active voice, indicative mood, present tense, first person, singular number, agreeing with its subject "I."

was telling....is an irregular transitive verb, progressive form, indicative mood, past tense, third person, singular number, agreeing with its subject "lad."

*** Transitive because it requires an object: the object is the clause "[that] life is but an empty dream;" "me" is the indirect object.**

EXERCISE 21.

Parse etymologically the *italicized verbs* in the following sentences:

1. When, in the course of human events, it *becomes* necessary for one people to dissolve the political bands which *have connected* them with another, and to assume, among the powers of the earth, the separate and equal station to which the laws of nature and of nature's God *entitle* them, a decent respect to the opinions of mankind *requires* that they *should declare* the causes which *impel* them to the separation.—*Declaration of Independence.*
2. Then *shrieked* the timid.—*Byron.*
3. The grave *is* the ordeal of true affection.—*W. Irving.*
4. So hard a winter *had* [not] *been known* for years.—*Milman.*
5. When that the poor *have cried*, Cæsar *hath wept.*—*Shakspeare.*
6. Each *thought* on the woman who *loved* him best.—*Kingsley.*
7. *Don't flatter** yourselves that friendship *authorizes* you to say disagreeable things to your intimates. On the contrary, the nearer you *come* into relation with a person, the more necessary *do* [tact and courtesy] *become.* Except in cases of necessity, which *are* rare, *leave* your friend to learn unpleasant truths from his enemies; they *are* ready enough to tell them. Good-breeding never *forgets* that self-love *is* universal. When you *read* the story of the Archbishop and Gil Blas, you *may laugh*, if *you will*, at the poor old man's delusion; but *don't forget* that the youth *was* the greater fool of the two, and that his master *served* such a booby rightly in turning him out of doors.—*Oliver Wendell Holmes.*
8. Holy and heavenly thoughts *shall counsel* her.—*Shakspeare.*
9. Then *rose* from sea to sky the wild farewell.—*Byron.*
10. The better part of valor *is* discretion.—*Shakspeare.*
11. At this sultry noontide, I *am* cupbearer to the parched populace, for whose benefit an iron goblet *is chained* to my waist. Like a dram-seller on the mall, at muster-day, I *cry* aloud to all and sundry, in my plainest accents, and at the very tiptop of my voice, Here it *is*, gentlemen! Here *is* the good liquor! *Walk* up, *walk* up, gentlemen; *walk* up, *walk* up!—*Hawthorne.*
12. The public opinion of the civilized world *is* [rapidly] *gaining* an ascendency over mere brute force. It *may be silenced* by military power, but it *can* [not] *be conquered.*—*Webster.*
13. In words, as fashions, the same rule *will hold*,
    Alike fantastic if too new or old;
    Be not the first by whom the new *is tried*,
    Nor yet the last to lay the old aside.—*Pope.*

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* Parse "do flatter."

II. VERBALS.

I. The Infinitive.

184. The infinitive may be used as—

I. A *noun*. As a noun an infinitive may serve as—

1. The *subject* of a verb: as, "*To walk* [or, *walking*] is healthy."
2. The *object* of a transitive verb: as, "I like *to walk* [or, *walking*]."

II. An *adjective*. In this use the infinitive may serve as—

1. The complement of an intransitive or of a passive verb: as, "He appeared *to comply*;" "Your mistake is *to be deplored*" (=*deplorable*); "He is *to blame*" = (blameworthy).
2. An attributive adjective relating to a noun: as, "water *to drink*" (=*drinking*-water; here "drinking" is a gerund); "a time *to laugh*;" "permission *to speak*."

III. An *adverb*, modifying a verb or an adjective: thus—

1. I have come *to see* you.
2. I am sorry *to hear* this.

185. A **gerund**, also, may be used as the object of a preposition, thus forming an adjective or adverbial phrase: as—

1. Benjamin West had as a boy a talent *for painting*.
2. Bees are skilful *in building* their hives.
3. *By working* hard we improve.

186. In **parsing** an infinitive, state—

1. Its **kind**—ordinary infinitive or gerund.
2. Whether **simple** or **compound**.
3. Its **use**—as noun, adjective, or adverb.

Models for Parsing.

1. To learn is a task indeed.

to learn............is a simple infinitive, used as a noun, and subject of the verb "is."

2. Talking overmuch is a sign of vanity.

talking............is the simple gerund of the verb *talk*, used as a noun, and subject of the verb "is."

3. A miser is to be pitied.

to be pitied......is a simple infinitive, used as adjective complement of the verb "is," and relating to "miser."

4. We are all striving to secure happiness.

to secure...........is a simple infinitive, used as an adverb, modifying the verb "are striving." ("Are striving to secure" =striving *for the purpose of securing*.)

5. We are happy in doing our duty.

doing................is the simple gerund of the verb *do*, used as a noun, and depending on the preposition "in."

6. 'Tis better to have loved and [to have] lost than never to have loved at all.

to have loved....is a compound infinitive, used as a noun, and subject of "is" (introduced by "it").

"*To have lost*" is parsed in the same way; "*to have loved* (at all)" is subject of *is*, understood.

II. **The Participles.**

187. Participles are attributive words, and are parsed, like adjectives, as modifying the noun or pronoun with which they are joined in meaning.

Models for Parsing.

1. The farmer sat in his easy-chair,
   Smoking his pipe of clay.

2. His head, bent down, on her soft hair lay;
   Fast asleep were they both on that summer day.

smoking...is the present (active) participle of the regular transitive verb "smoke," modifying the noun "farmer."

bent.........is the past (passive) participle of the irregular transitive verb "bend," modifying the noun "head."

EXERCISE 22.

Parse etymologically the *italicized infinitives* and *participles* in the following sentences:

1. *To be* virtuous is *to be* happy.
2. *Seeing* is *believing*.
3. I remember *to have seen* William at the Rink.
4. Philosophy teaches us *to endure* afflictions.
5. Learn *to labor* and *to wait*.
6. It is painful *to see* an animal suffering.
7. His *having failed* is not surprising.
8. I recommended *turning* a new leaf.
9. *Throwing* their muskets aside, the soldiers rushed on the foe.
10. *Born* to a crown, Louis XVI. died on the scaffold.
11. They wish *to turn* him from *keeping* bad company.
12. What we always put off *doing*,
    Clearly we shall never do.

V. The Adverb.

188. A **simple** adverb is used to modify the word with which it is joined in meaning. A **conjunctive** adverb is used both as a modifier and as a connective.

189. In **parsing** an adverb, state—

Its **class**—simple, conjunctive, interrogative, or modal.
Its **comparison** (if comparative or superlative; otherwise comparison may be omitted).
Its **use**—as above.

Models for Parsing.

1. How sweet the moonlight sleeps upon this bank!
   Here will we sit, and let the sounds of music
   Creep in our ears.

how......is a simple adverb, modifying the adjective "sweet."

here......is a simple adverb, modifying the verb "will sit."

2. Shall I be frighted when a madman stares?

when....is a conjunctive adverb, modifying the verb "stares," and connecting the clause which it introduces with the previous (principal) proposition.

3. Where are the songs of Spring?

where...is an interrogative adverb, modifying the verb "are."

EXERCISE 23.

Parse etymologically the *italicized adverbs* in the following sentences:

1. Washington ate *heartily*, but was no epicure. He took tea, of which he was *very* fond, *early* in the evening.—*Irving.*
2. *Ill* fared it *then* with Roderick Dhu.—*Scott.*
3. Touch her not *scornfully!*
   Think of her *mournfully*,
   Gently and *humanly*.—*Hood.*
4. The world was all before them *where* to choose
   Their place of rest, and Providence their guide.—*Milton.*
5. Thou, too, sail *on*, O Ship of State!—*Longfellow.*
6. And *when* above the surges
   They saw his crest appear,
   All Rome sent forth a rapturous cry,
   And even the ranks of Tuscany
   Could *scarce* forbear to cheer.—*Macaulay.*
7. *Why* should we shrink from what we cannot shun?—*Byron.*

VI. The Preposition, Conjunction, and Interjection.

I. THE PREPOSITION.

190. The use of the preposition is to form with its object a *phrase:* thus—

1. There is rest *for the weary.*
2. *Under her torn hat* glowed the wealth
   Of simple beauty and [of] *rustic health.*

The combination of words formed by the preposition and object is termed a *prepositional phrase.* (This is to distinguish it from a *participial* phrase; see § 218).

191. In parsing a preposition proceed as follows:

1. Name the part of speech.
2. State what two words it joins—naming the object first.

Model.—*Around* the rugged rocks the ragged rascal *ran.*

around...is a preposition, and joins the noun "rocks" to the verb "ran."

EXERCISE 24.

Parse etymologically the prepositions in the following sentences:

1. The thunders bellowed over the wide waste of waters.—*Irving.*
2. A murmuring whisper through the nunnery ran.—*Tennyson.*
3. He goes on Sunday to the church.—*Longfellow.*
4. I seek divine simplicity in him
   Who handles things divine.—*Cowper.*
5. He starts from his dream at the blast of the horn. —*Wilson.*
6. Through all the wild October days the clash and din resounded in the air.—*Dickens.*
7. But on the hill the golden-rod, and the aster in the wood,
   And the yellow sunflower by the brook, in autumn beauty stood.
   —*Bryant.*
8. There is a special providence in the fall of a sparrow.—*Shakspeare.*
9. The paths of glory lead but to the grave.—*Gray.*
10. In the spring of 1493, while the court was still at Barcelona, letters were received from Christopher Columbus, announcing his return to Spain, and the successful achievement of his great enterprise, by the discovery of land beyond the western ocean.—*Prescott.*

II. THE CONJUNCTION.

192. The use of the conjunction is to connect sentences and the elements of sentences—the co-ordinate conjunctions connecting sentences and elements of equal rank; and the subordinate conjunctions connecting dependent with principal propositions.

193. In parsing a conjunction, state (1) its class and (2) what it connects.

EXERCISE 25.

Parse etymologically the *italicized conjunctions* in the following sentences:

1. When my time was expired, I worked my passage home; *and* glad I was to see Old England again, *because* I loved my country.—*Goldsmith.*
2. Some murmur when their sky is clear,
   And wholly bright to view,
   If one small speck of dark appear
   In their great heaven of blue.—*Trench.*
3. 'Twas noon,
   And Helon knelt beside a stagnant pool
   In the lone wilderness.
4. Millions of spiritual creatures walk the earth unseen,
   Both when we wake *and* when we sleep.—*Milton.*

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194. The Interjection.—The interjection is parsed by simply naming it: it has no grammatical relations in the sentence.

METHOD OF ABBREVIATED PARSING.

The method of abbreviated parsing here presented is based on the principle of enumerating only such grammatical forms as affect the construction, and of omitting what may be understood in the terms of statement; as, *singular* for "singular number," *indicative* for "indicative mood," etc.

Noun.........
- NUMBER—*singular* or *plural*. (Number in proper nouns omitted).
- CASE—*nominative*, *possessive*, or *objective* (as denoted by *form* or *use*).

Omitted: CLASS, PERSON, and GENDER—as not affecting the construction. When, however, a noun is in the 2d or 3d person, the fact may be stated.

Pronoun....
- CLASS—*personal*, *relative*, or *interrogative*.
- PERSON—(in personal pronouns; in relative pronouns of the 1st or 2d person only).
- NUMBER—*singular* or *plural*.
- GENDER—(in personal pronouns of the 3d person singular only).
- CASE—(nominative or objective as denoted by use: possessives to be parsed as adjectives or as pronominals, nominative or objective).

Omitted: PERSON in all but the personal pronouns and in relatives of 1st and 2d persons; GENDER in all but the personal pronoun of the 3d pers. sing.

Adjective...
- CLASS—*limiting* (pronominal) or *qualifying*.
- COMPARISON—(if *comparative* or *superlative*).
- OFFICE—*attributive* or *complementary*.

Omitted: SUBDIVISIONS of limiting adjectives; DEGREE, if positive.

Verb.........
- CONJUGATION—*regular* or *irregular*.
- CLASS—*transitive* or *intransitive*.
- VOICE—(only if *passive*).
- MOOD—*indicative*, *potential*, etc.
- TENSE—*present*, *past*, etc.
- PERSON—*first*, *second*, or *third*.
- NUMBER—*singular* or *plural*.

Adverb......
- CLASS—*simple* or *conjunctive*.
- COMPARISON—(if *comparative* or *superlative*).
- OFFICE—(if simple, What does it modify? If conjunctive, What propositions does it connect?)

Prepositions....words connected.
Conjunctions...words or propositions connected.

I. MODEL OF ABBREVIATED ORAL PARSING.

After Wellington's victory at Waterloo, Napoleon, the Emperor of France, was banished to St. Helena, a desolate island in the Atlantic Ocean.

after....................is a preposition, connecting "victory" with "was banished."

Wellington's........is a noun in the possessive case, modifying "victory."

victory...............is a noun in the objective singular, depending on "after."

at.......................is a preposition, connecting "Waterloo" with "victory."

Waterloo............is a noun in the objective case, depending on "at."

Napoleon............is a noun in the nominative case, subject of "was banished."

the.....................is a limiting adjective, limiting "Emperor."

Emperor.............is a noun in the nominative singular, in apposition with "Napoleon."

of.........................is a preposition, connecting "France" with "Emperor."

was banished......is a regular transitive verb, passive, in the third person singular, past indicative.

to......................is a preposition, connecting "St. Helena" with "was banished."

a.........................is a limiting adjective, limiting "island."

desolate..............is a qualifying adjective, modifying "island."

island.................is a noun in the objective singular, in apposition with "St. Helena."

in........................is a preposition, connecting "Atlantic Ocean" with "island."

Atlantic Ocean...is a noun in the objective singular, depending on "in."

II. MODEL OF ABBREVIATED WRITTEN PARSING.

Speech is a great blessing to mankind; but, alas! we too often pervert it.

WORD.	CLASS.	GRAMMATICAL FORMS.	OFFICE.
Speech...	noun	sing., nom.	subject of "is"
is........	verb	irreg. intran., indic., pres., 3d sing.	agreeing with "Speech"
a.........	limiting adj.		limiting "blessing"
great.....	adjective		modifying "blessing"
blessing..	noun	sing., nom.	complement of "is"
to........	preposition		connecting "mankind" and "blessing"
mankind..	noun	sing., obj.	depending on "to"
but	conjunction		connecting the two propositions
alas!.....	interjection		
we.......	pers. pronoun	1st pers., pl., nom.	subject of "pervert"
too.......	adverb		modifying "often"
often.....	adverb		modifying "pervert"
pervert...	verb	reg. trans., indic., pres., 1st pl.	
it	pers. pronoun	3d pers. sing , neut., obj.	object of "pervert"

NOTES ON VARIABLE PARTS OF SPEECH.

[For Reference.]

a............ARTICLE: "*a* beautiful face."

PREPOSITION: "I go *a*-fishing."

after*......PREPOSITION: "You came *after* me."

ADVERB: (*simple*), "You came soon *after*;" (*conjunctive*), "You came *after* I left."†

above.......PREPOSITION: "*above* the ground;" "*above* mean actions."

ADVERB: "that rollest *above*."

ADJECTIVE: "the *above* remarks;" "the *above* rule."

1. The adjective use of "above" is generally condemned by grammarians, but it seems to be firmly established.

2. The metaphorical application of "above," as in the phrase "*above* comprehension," readily passes over to the meaning *more than:* as, "*above* the price of rubies;" "*above* a dozen" [*dozen*, a noun].

all..........ADJECTIVE: "*All* men are mortal."

PRONOMINAL: "each for *all*, *all* for each."

NOUN: "*All* is lost."

ADVERB: "*all* round the world."

any.........ADJECTIVE: "*any* age;" "*any* complaints."

PRONOMINAL: "Who is here so base that would be a bondman? If *any*, speak."

ADVERB: "Are you *any* better?"

as‡..........ADVERB: (*simple*) "*As* brave as a lion."

(*Conjunctive*) "He spoke *as* we entered;" "as far *as* we can see."

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* Termed: Continuative conjunction (*Morrell*).—Usually called a conjunction; better an adverb (*Mason*).—Relative adverb or subordinating conjunction (*Bain*).

† In older English the usual conjunctive form was "after that:" as, "*After that* I was turned I repented."—*Bible.* This would indicate that, in its connective office, "after" is a preposition rather than a conjunction, the construction being that of a preposition followed by a noun-clause: "*after* [that I was turned]."

‡ Termed: Continuative conjunction (*Morrell*).—Conjunctive or connective adverb, in some cases; subordinative conjunction in other cases (*Mason*).—Relative or conjunctive adverb, or subordinating conjunction (*Bain*).

CONJUNCTION: "*As* he was ambitious, I slew him."

PRONOMINAL: "I have not such kind treatment *as* I used to have" (=*which* I used to have).

1. "As" is from a pronominal root (all-so), and signifies *in which way* or *in that way*. This pronominal sense is at the root of the word in all its uses: thus, "brave *in that* a lion [is brave];" "*in that* he was ambitious, I slew him;" "I have not kind treatment [in the way] *in which* I used to have."

2. "As" is now used as a relative only in correlation with a preceding *such* or *same;* but the vulgarism, "This is the boy *as* I saw yesterday" is an exemplification of its original pronominal meaning.

below.......PREPOSITION: "high life *below* stairs."

ADVERB: "Go *below*."

NOUN: "The power comes from *below*."

beside......PREPOSITION: "Sit *beside* me."

ADVERB: "Beloved of heaven o'er all the world *beside*."

but..........PREPOSITION: "All *but* him had fled;"* "None knew thee *but* to love thee."

CONJUNCTION: "I go, *but* I return."

ADVERB: "'Tis *but* [=only] a little faded flower;" "I can *but* lament the result."†

But is sometimes used with the force of a negative relative, when it has a negative correlative: as—

> There is *no* fireside, howsoe'er defended,
> *But* has one vacant chair.—*Longfellow.*

In this construction "but" is equivalent to *that . . . not* or *who . . . not.* This force, however, it acquires through ellipsis. Thus, in Shakspeare, "I found no man *but he* was true to me," where *but* as a preposition governs the proposition "he was true to me."

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* "But," as thus used, is a true preposition, being originally *be-out=without*, or *except* (Anglo-Saxon *be-utan*, *butan*); it should not be confounded with the conjunction *but.* To such an extent has the prepositional use of "but" been forgotten, that many grammarians regard the word as a conjunction only; they condemn as violations of grammar the constructions,

> There was no one present *but me.*
> They all went away but *him;*

substituting *but I* and *but he*, which is *correcting* good English into bad.

† The adverbial force of "but" here arises from the ellipsis of a negative. The construction was originally, "I can *not but* lament the result," "lament" being an infinitive governed by the preposition "but." So, "That I may have *not but* my meat and drink."—*Chaucer.*

else..........ADJECTIVE: "any one *else*" (=any *other* one); "nobody *else*" (=no *other* body, or person).

ADVERB: "Where *else* can such fruits be found?"

CONJUNCTION: "He must be sick, *else* he would have written to us."*

enough....ADVERB: "He has been punished *enough*."

NOUN: "We have had *enough* of action."

ADJECTIVE: "We have not *enough* men" (adjective in use, though really a noun with *of* omitted).

"I have not *enough* men:" adverb in position; adjective in use.

fast.........ADJECTIVE: "a *fast* horse."

ADVERB: "You talk *fast*."

"Fast" may be taken as a type of a considerable class of monosyllabic adjectives which are often used as adverbs: as, "to work *hard*," "to speak *loud*," "to rise *high*," etc. In Anglo-Saxon and early English the adverbial form was marked by a final *e*, as *hard* (adj.), *hard-e* (adv.). When this *e* became silent and was dropped, the adverbial form became identical with the adjective.†

for..........PREPOSITION: "He works *for* his bread;" "*for* us."

CONJUNCTION: "He pressed on, *for* his ambition was still unsatisfied."

full..........ADJECTIVE: "a *full* measure;" "*full* satisfaction."

ADVERB: "*full* many a flower."

hard........ADJECTIVE: "*hard* wood;" "The diamond is *hard*."

ADVERB: "The lad studies *hard*;" "The castle stood *hard* by a forest" (adverb modifying adverbial phrase "by a forest").

however...ADVERB: "Death spares none, *however* powerful."

CONJUNCTION: "*However*, he was not inclined to take that course;" "That course, *however*, he was not inclined to take."

"However," as a co-ordinate conjunction, is a contraction of *however it be*, and hence is, fundamentally, adverbial.

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* "Else" (anciently written *elles*) is the genitive (possessive) case of an Old-English root *el* or *al*, meaning *other*. Its various meanings go back to this radical: thus, "any one else"=any one *of other*; "where else"=where *of other* (places); "else he would have written"=*of other* (state or condition) he would have written.

† Morris: *Historical Grammar*, p. 190.

like.........VERB: "I *like* a rascal to be punished."

NOUN: "I ne'er shall look upon his *like* again."

ADJECTIVE: "The boy is *like* his mother."

ADVERB: "He talks *like* a fool."

Here the adverb "like" is itself modified by the adverbial phrase "[to] a fool."

more........ADJECTIVE: "*more* pudding;" "*more* books."

ADVERB: "*more* beautiful;" "Sleep no *more*."

NOUN: "He is seeking for *more*;" "Say no *more*."

The adjective use of "more" comes from a confusion of the adverbial use: i. e., instead of saying "some pudding *more*," we have come to say "some *more* pudding."

near.........ADJECTIVE: "the *near* approach of winter;" "Summer is *near*."

ADVERB: "Come *near*."

PREPOSITION: "He sat *near* me."

"Near" was originally an adjective, but acquired the office of an adverb, and at last of a preposition. Though seemingly in the positive degree, it is really a comparative form from *neah*=*nigh*: thus, "the *near* (=the *nearer*) in blood, the *nearer* bloody."—*Shakspeare.*

needs.......NOUN: "My *needs* are small."

ADVERB: "He *needs* must go."*

VERB: "He *needs* to go."

now.........ADVERB: "Go to bed *now*."

CONJUNCTION: "Not this man, but Barrabas; *now* Barrabas was a robber."

so............ADVERB: "*So* frowned the combatants;" "Richard is not *so* tall as Henry."

CONJUNCTION: "There was nothing to be seen, *so* we went our way."

"So" has sometimes a pronominal use: as, "Whether he is a genius or not, he is considered *so*" (=*a genius*). It has, indeed, a general representative power: as, "David was wise; Solomon was more *so*" (=*wise*). "If you are busy, say *so*" (=*that you are busy*).

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* "Needs," as an adverb, is an old genitive (possessive) case singular: "He needs must go"=He must *of need* [of necessity] go.

since........PREPOSITION: "*since* the Flood;" "*since* yesterday."
CONJUNCTION: "*Since* you command, I must obey."
ADVERB: "Two years have passed *since* last we met."

that.........ADJECTIVE: "*that* house;" "*that* pleasure."
PRONOMINAL: "We heard the minister's speech, but not *that* of the doctor."
REL. PRONOUN: "the man *that* hath no music in himself."
CONJUNCTION: "We know *that* Mars has satellites.

what.......REL. PRONOUN: "He obtained *what* he sought."
INTER. PRONOUN: "*What* is the news?"
ADJECTIVE: "*What* sufferings we have endured."
ADVERB: "*What* with generosity and *what* with extravagance, the man was ruined."
INTERJECTION: "*What!* Did Cæsar swoon?"

while.......VERB: "Thus we *while* away our time."
NOUN: "I love to steal a *while* away."
ADVERB: "I will watch *while* you sleep."

worth......NOUN: "*Worth* makes the man."
ADJECTIVE: "A ring he hath of mine *worth* forty ducats;" "To reign is *worth* ambition."

Many grammarians class "worth" among the prepositions;* but it is an adjective, and the noun following it is in the objective adverbial. Thus, "worth forty ducats"=valuable *by forty ducats* (measure of value, see p. 105).

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* "*Worth* has the construction of a preposition, as it admits of the objective case after it, without an intervening preposition."—*Worcester's Dictionary.*

GENERAL REVIEW OF ETYMOLOGY.

1. What is etymology?
2. Name the parts of speech.
3. Define "grammatical form."
4. Name the grammatical forms.
5. What are the four modes of denoting a grammatical form?
6. Which parts of speech have, and which have not, grammatical forms?
7. Define noun.
8. What are the tests of the noun?
9. What are the classes of nouns?
10. Define common noun; proper; abstract.
11. Enumerate the grammatical forms of the noun.
12. Define number: singular; plural.
13. Give the general rule for the plural of nouns.
14. Give an example of plural by radical change; of an indeterminate form.
15. How is the plural of compounds formed?
16. Define gender: masculine; feminine; common; neuter.
17. How is the feminine gender of nouns denoted?
18. Define case.
19. How many cases of nouns?
20. Define nominative case; possessive case; objective case.
21. Give the rule for forming the possessive.
22. What is the origin of *'s*?
23. Define person in nouns.
24. How is it known?
25. Define pronoun.
26. What are the three classes of pronouns?
27. Define personal pronoun.
28. How many grammatical forms has a personal pronoun?
29. Define relative pronoun.
30. Define antecedent.
31. What are the interrogative pronouns?
32. Decline *who; which.*
33. Give an example of a *possessive* adjective (or pronoun); of a *demonstrative;* of an *indefinite;* of a *distributive.*
34. What peculiar office have relative pronouns?
35. Define verb.
36. What are its distinguishing marks?
37. Into what two classes are verbs divided?
38. Define transitive verb—intransitive.
39. What is a complement?
40. Define auxiliary.
41. What are the two verbals?
42. Define infinitive; participle.
43. Enumerate the grammatical forms of the verb.
44. Define voice.
45. What is meant by the active voice? the passive voice?
46. How is the passive voice formed?

47. Define mood.
48. How many moods are there?
49. How is the indicative mood used? the potential? the subjunctive? the imperative?
50. What is tense?
51. Enumerate the six tenses.
52. Name the tenses of the indicative mood.
53. Name the tenses of the potential mood.
54. Name the tenses of the subjunctive mood.
55. How many tenses has the imperative mood?
56. What are the two infinitives?
57. What are the two gerunds?
58. How many participles are there?
59. Define number and person in verbs.
60. What is the origin of *ed* in the past tense?
61. What is conjugation?
62. How many conjugations are there?
63. Define a *regular* verb; an *irregular* verb.
64. What are the principal parts of a verb? Of *walk?*
65. Give a synopsis of *walk* in 2d pers. sing.; in 3d pers. pl.
66. Define *defective* verb; *unipersonal; redundant.*
67. What are the chief auxiliaries?
68. Define progressive form; emphatic, interrogative.
69. What is the origin of *shall?*
70. Define adjective.
71. How are adjectives classified?
72. What is a limiting adjective?
73. Into what three classes are limiting adjectives subdivided?
74. Name the articles.
75. Define pronominal adjective.
76. What subdivisions of pronominal adjectives are made?
77. What is a cardinal numeral?
78. Define qualifying adjective.
79. What is comparison?
80. How are the comparative and superlative degrees formed?
81. Explain *better; worse.*
82. Define adverb.
83. Give the origin of *when; where; why.*
84. How are adverbs compared?
85. Define preposition.
86. Name the simple prepositions.
87. What does a preposition govern?
88. Define conjunction.
89. How are conjunctions classified?
90. Define *co-ordinate* conjunction; *subordinate* conjunction.
91. Give three co-ordinate and two subordinate conjunctions.
92. Define interjection.
93. Enumerate the nine uses of the noun.
94. Which eight uses of the pronoun are the same as those of the noun?
95. State the two uses of the adjective.
96. State the difference of office between a finite verb and a verbal.
97. What are the three uses of the infinitive?
98. What use has the adverb?
99. What uses has the preposition?
100. What uses has the conjunction?

SECTION II.

SYNTAX.

DEFINITIONS.

195. Syntax* is that division of grammar which treats of the relations of words in sentences.

196. Grammatical Relations.—There are seven principal relations in which words may stand in a sentence:—

I. The *subjective* relation,—of subject to predicate.

For the definition of subject, see § 209; of predicate, see § 210.

II. The *predicative* relation,—of predicate to subject.

III. The *attributive* relation,—of adjunct to the word modified.

An *attributive* word, or *adjunct* (see § 211), is a word used with a noun or pronoun to modify its meaning. It may be (1) an *adjective* or a *participle;* (2) a noun *possessive;* (3) a noun *appositive.*

IV. The *complementary* relation,—of complement to incomplete verb.

V. The *adverbial* relation,—of adverb to verb, etc.

VI. The *representative* relation,—of pronoun to the noun or pronoun represented.

VII. The *connective* relation,—of preposition or conjunction to the words connected.

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* From Greek *syn*, together; and *taxis*, arrangement.

To these may be added—

VIII. The *absolute* and *independent* constructions, in which words have *no* grammatical relation to the other parts of the sentence.

197. Constructions.—In the syntax of words two forms of construction are found—*regular* constructions and *irregular* constructions.

198. Regular constructions are those that follow the general rules for the combination of words in sentences. They are expressed in the Rules of Syntax (see page 140).

199. An **irregular** or peculiar construction, sometimes called an *idiom*, is one that departs from the ordinary form or meaning of words, or from the usual manner of combining words: as, "How *do you do?*" "This heart *of mine.*"

The irregularity that constitutes a particular turn of expression an *idiom* is due to the operation of several laws of language, among which the most important are:

Law I. Desire of brevity.
Law II. Extension of a construction beyond its original scope.
Law III. Desire of euphony.

NOTE.—The operation of these important principles will best be shown in connection with the idiomatic forms under the several rules of syntax.

200. Ellipsis is the omission of a word or of words necessary to complete the grammatical structure of the sentence: thus—

1. Whose is this image and superscription? They say unto Him, *Cæsar's* [image and superscription].—*English Bible.*
2. Hadst thou the same free will and power to stand?
   Thou hadst [the same free will and power to stand].—*Milton.*

201. Pleonasm is the use of superfluous words: thus—

1. The world *it* is empty, the heart will die.—*Coleridge.*
2. Yon silver beams,
   Sleep *they* less sweetly on the cottage-thatch
   Than on the dome of kings?—*Shelley.*

NOTE ON SYNTAX AND ANALYSIS.

I. What is called analysis (i. e., sentential analysis) is a kind of *general* syntax, being equally applicable to all languages. Syntax treats of the *grammatical* relations of the parts of speech; analysis, of the *logical* relations of the constituent elements of a sentence; that is, of their relations in the *expression of thought.* Taken together they constitute that branch of language-study which may be termed the Doctrine of the Sentence. The difference between the two, in the manner of considering a sentence, may be seen from the following example:

"Now fades the glimmering landscape on the sight."

SYNTAX.

"Now" is an adverb, and modifies the verb "fades."

"Fades" is a regular intransitive verb, indicative mood, present tense, third person, singular, to agree with the noun "landscape."

"The" is the definite article, and limits "landscape."

"Glimmering" is a qualifying adjective, and modifies "landscape."

"Landscape" is a common noun, of the singular number, neuter gender, and nominative case, subject of "fades."

"On" is a preposition, and connects "sight" with "fades."

"The" (as before).

"Sight" is a common noun, of the singular number, neuter gender, and objective case, depending on the preposition "on."

ANALYSIS.

"Now fades the glimmering," etc., is a simple sentence.

The grammatical subject is "landscape."

The grammatical subject is modified by the adjective elements "the" and "glimmering," thus forming the logical subject "the glimmering landscape."

The grammatical predicate is "fades."

The grammatical predicate is modified by the adverb "now," and by the adverbial phrase "on the sight," thus forming the logical predicate, "now fades on the sight."

II. Syntax treats only of the *grammatical* construction of sentences, and is limited to a single aim—namely, to secure by obedience to the rules governing the grammatical relations of words, *correctness* in the formation of sentences. All else—as *beauty, strength,* etc.—is beyond the scope of grammar, and pertains to rhetoric.

RULES OF SYNTAX.

1. Subjective Relation.

Rule I.—The subject of a verb is in the nominative case.

2. Predicative Relation.

Rule II.—A verb agrees with its subject in person and number.

3. Attributive Relation.

Rule III. — Adjectives and participles modify nouns or pronouns.

Rule IV.—A noun modifying another noun signifying a different thing is in the possessive case.

Rule V. — A noun or pronoun used to explain another noun or pronoun is put by apposition in the same case.

4. Complementary Relation.

Rule VI.—The object of a transitive verb is in the objective case.

Rule VII.—A noun or pronoun used as the complement of an intransitive or a passive verb is in the nominative case.

5. Adverbial Relation.

Rule VIII.—An adverb modifies a verb, an adjective, or another adverb.

6. Representative Relation.

Rule IX.—A pronoun agrees in person, gender, and number with its antecedent or the word that it represents.

7. Connective Relation.

Rule X.—1. A preposition joins a noun or pronoun to some other word.

2. A noun or pronoun depending on a preposition is in the objective case.

Rule XI.—Conjunctions connect words, phrases, or propositions.

8. Absolute and Independent Constructions.

Rule XII.—1. A noun or pronoun whose case depends on no other word is put in the nominative absolute.

2. The nominative independent and the interjection have no grammatical relation to the other parts of the sentence.

NOTE.—For the Syntax of Moods and Tenses, and of the Verbals, see page 197.

I. SUBJECTIVE RELATION.

THE SUBJECT NOMINATIVE.

Rule I.—The subject of a verb is in the nominative case.

The subject of a verb may be either a noun or one of its equivalents—namely, a pronoun, an infinitive, a phrase, or a proposition: thus—

1. *God* is our fortress.
2. *He* comes, the herald of a rising world.
3. *To be* contents his natural desire.
4. *To see the sun* is pleasant.
5. *What one man owns* cannot belong to another.

EXERCISE 26.

In the following sentences apply Rule I.*

1. Flashed all their sabres bare.—*Tennyson.*
2. When that the poor have cried, Cæsar hath wept.—*Shakspeare.*
3. Beyond that I seek not to penetrate the veil.—*Webster.*
4. She tore the azure robe of night,
And set the stars of glory there.—*Drake.*
5. To do aught good never will be our task.—*Milton.*
6. Jerusalem has derived some reputation from the number and importance of her memorable sieges.—*Gibbon.*
7. The service past, around the pious man,
With ready zeal, each honest rustic ran.—*Goldsmith.*
8. Seasons return, but not to me returns
Day, or the sweet approach of even or morn.—*Milton.*
9. Whatever is, is right.—*Pope.*
10. Dust thou art, to dust returnest,
Was not spoken of the soul.—*Longfellow.*

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* It is recommended that the parsing exercises be now confined to *syntactical* parsing. **Model** (sentence 1): "The noun *sabres* is the subject of the verb *flashed*, and hence is in the nominative case according to Rule I."

APPLIED SYNTAX OF RULE I.

I. Violations of Rule I.

Case 1.—*In the use of the objective instead of the nominative case of relative and interrogative pronouns:* thus—

Whom would you suppose stands first in our class?

Incorrect: "whom," in the objective case is made the subject of the verb "stands;" but it should be in the nominative case, *who*, according to Rule I. Hence—

Caution 1.—*When a relative or an interrogative pronoun is separated by intervening words from the verb of which it is the subject, care must be taken that the pronoun is in the nominative form.*

Case 2.—*When there is an ellipsis of the verb:* thus—

1. Is *she* as tall as *me?*—*Shakspeare.*
2. She suffers hourly more than *me.*—*Swift.*
3. The nations not so blessed as *thee.*—*Thomson.*
4. It is not for such as *us* to sit with the rulers of the land.—*Walter Scott.*
5. She was neither better nor wiser than you or *me.*—*Thackeray.*

The above sentences, each by a famous author, all violate the rule. The error becomes evident when the ellipsis is supplied: thus, (1) "as tall as me *am;*" (2) "more than me *do;*" (3) "not so blessed as thee *art;*" (4) "such as us *are;*" (5) "than you or me *are.*" Hence—

Caution 2.—*In elliptical sentences—especially when the verb is omitted after a pronoun subject following* than *or* as*—care must be taken that the pronoun designed as the subject of the verb understood is in the nominative form.*

II. Special Rules.

Special Rule I.—**A noun or pronoun designed by construction to be the subject of a verb must have, expressed or understood, a verb of which it is the subject.**

Ex.—Two substantives, when they come together, and do not signify the same thing, the former must be in the genitive case.

The noun "substantives" is evidently designed to be the subject of some verb, but there is no verb of which it is the subject. To correct the sentence it must be reconstructed. Thus, "When two substantives not signifying the same thing come together, the former must be in the genitive case."

SPECIAL RULE II.—**The verb of which a noun or pronoun is the subject may be omitted when from the construction it is readily supplied.** Thus—

She *will relent* some time; *he*, never.

NOTES ON PECULIAR AND IDIOMATIC FORMS.

I. **It.**—By an idiom of our language the pronoun *it*, in such constructions as "*It* was impossible to recognize him," serves to introduce a verb, the real (or logical) subject of which is placed after the verb. "*It* was impossible," etc.=*To recognize him* was impossible. In this construction "it" may be parsed as the *anticipative* subject, and the real subject as the *logical* subject.

II. **There.**—The word *there* has a similar office in such sentences as "*There* came to the beach a poor exile of Erin"=*A poor exile of Erin* came to the beach. "There" may be parsed as a *pronominal* (or expletive), used as the anticipative subject.

EXERCISE 27.

In the following, correct the violations of Rule I.

1. You and me will go together.
2. Them that seek wisdom will be wise.
3. He feared the enemy might fall upon his men, whom he saw were off their guard.
4. Whom do you think called on me this morning?
5. This is a man whom I think deserves encouragement.
6. My brother is a better swimmer than him.
7. Is James as old as me?
8. Such a man as him could never be President.
9. Are you taller than her?
10. Two nations, when one makes war on the other, it is sometimes difficult to tell where the blame lies.

II. PREDICATIVE RELATION.

AGREEMENT OF VERB.

Rule II.—A verb agrees with its subject in person and number.

NOTE.—The logical necessity of this rule may be thus stated: In any sentence the verb and the subject are spoken of the same thing. They must, therefore, agree with each other in those grammatical forms which they have in common, otherwise there would be a contradiction in terms. Now the grammatical forms common to the verb and the noun or pronoun are person and number. It is true that, owing to the paucity of inflections in the English verb, *conformity* of person and number appears only to a limited extent in visible signs; nevertheless, there is and there must be logical *concord* as respects the common relations of verb and subject.

EXERCISE 28.

In the following sentences apply Rule II.*

1. Father, thy hand
   Hath reared these venerable columns; thou
   Didst weave this verdant roof.—*Bryant.*
2. You say you are a better soldier.—*Shakspeare.*
3. Then ye are only five.—*Wordsworth.*
4. Pleasantly rose next morning the sun on the village of Grand-Pré.
   —*Longfellow.*
5. One morn a Peri at the gate of heaven stood disconsolate.—*Moore.*
6. Where De Soto was buried cannot be determined.—*Bancroft.*
7. A little learning is a dangerous thing;
   Drink deep, or taste not the Pierian spring.—*Pope.*
8. He prayeth best who loveth best
   All things both great and small;
   For the dear God who loveth us,
   He made and loveth all.—*Coleridge.*

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* **Model:** "*Hath reared*, a verb in the third person singular, agrees with its subject *hand*, according to Rule II.; *didst weave*, a verb in the second person singular, agrees with its subject *thou*, according to Rule II."

9. The Accusing Spirit, which flew up to heaven's chancery with the oath, blushed as he gave it in; and the Recording Angel, as he wrote it down, dropped a tear upon the word, and blotted it out forever.—*Sterne.*
10. We know that if we could cause this structure to ascend, not only till it reached the skies, but till it pierced them, its broad surfaces could still contain but part of that which, in an age of knowledge, hath already been spread over the earth, and which history charges itself with making known to all future times.—*Daniel Webster.*
11. Then methought the air grew denser, perfumed from an unseen censer
Swung by Seraphim whose footfalls tinkled on the tufted floor.
"Wretch," I cried, "thy God hath lent thee—by these angels he hath sent thee
Respite—respite and nepenthe from thy memories of Lenore!
Quaff, oh quaff this kind nepenthe and forget this lost Lenore!"
Quoth the raven—"*Nevermore!*"—*Poe.*

APPLIED SYNTAX OF RULE II.

I. Violations of Rule II.

Case 1. — *When the verb is made to agree, not with its real subject, but with some modifying word or phrase:* thus—

His reputation was great, and somewhat more durable than that of similar poets *have* generally been.

Incorrect: the plural form of the verb "have" is used with a subject in the singular number, "that." It should be "*has* generally been." The cause of the mistake is that the verb "have" is *attracted* into the same number as "poets;" but as the phrase "of similar poets" is a mere *adjunct* of "that," it can have no influence on the number of the verb. Hence—

Caution 1.—*The adjuncts of a subject do not control the number of the verb.*

Case 2. — *When there is misapprehension as to the number of a relative pronoun used as subject:* thus—

This is one of the most valuable books that *has* appeared in any language.

Incorrect: the verb "has" should agree with its subject, the relative "that;" now, "that" is in the plural (see Rule IX.), because "books," its antecedent, is in the plural; it should, therefore, be "that *have* appeared." Hence—

Caution 2.—*When the subject of the verb is a relative pronoun, the antecedent determines the number of the verb.*

Case 3.—*When an improper ellipsis of the verb occurs:* thus—

A bundle of papers was produced, and such particulars as the following detailed.

There is an ellipsis of the auxiliary before the participle "detailed." But this ellipsis is improper, because on supplying *was* (expressed before "produced") we have, "such particulars *was* detailed." The auxiliary *were* should be supplied. Hence—

Caution 3.—*Generally no ellipsis of the verb is allowable when the verb, if supplied, would not agree with its subject.*

II. Special Rules under Rule II.

SPECIAL RULE I.—**Two or more subjects in the singular connected by AND, and conveying plurality of idea, require a verb in the plural:** as, "Mars and Jupiter *have* been visible this week."

I. **Person.**—A verb having two or more subjects of different persons connected by *and* is in the *plural number*, by Special Rule I. As to the *person* to be attributed to the verb, that is determined by the following tests:

If one of the subjects is in the first person, the verb is parsed as in the first person plural: "*He* and *I* (=*we*) *are* to go."

If one of the subjects is in the second person (there being no subject in the first person), the verb is parsed as in the second person plural: "*You* and *James are* [second person plural] to go."

II. **Coupled Subjects Singular.**—The following are instances of coupled subjects which convey, not plurality, but unity of idea. In such cases the verb is in the singular.

1. Two or more nouns designating one individual: as—

   An eminent *scholar* and judicious *critic has* said.

   That is, one individual who was both a "scholar" and a "critic."

2. Two or more nouns synonymous, or nearly so: thus—

   Wherein *doth* sit the *dread* and *fear* of kings.

3. Two or more nouns considered *separately*, by means of the limiting words *each*, *every*, or *no:* thus—

1. *Each* day and *each* hour *brings* its own duties.
2. *Every* limb and *every* feature *appears* with its appropriate grace.
3. *No* book and *no* paper *was* arranged.

4. Two nouns representing a single compound object: as—

The wheel and axle *was* out of repair=the wheel *together with* the axle.

5. Two nouns, of which one is excluded from the affirmation by the adverb *not:* thus—

Our own heart, and not other men's opinions, *forms* our true honor.

In this construction two propositions are implied, viz.: "Our heart forms our true honor," and "Other men's opinions do not form our true honor." The verb agrees with the subject of the affirmative proposition, and is understood with the other.

Special Rule II.—**Two or more subjects in the singular separated by or or nor require a verb in the singular:** as, "He or his brother *has* the book." "Neither this nor that *is* the thing wanted."

If one of the subjects be in the plural, it must be placed next the verb, which must also be in the plural; as, "Neither the emperor nor his generals *were* convinced."

Special Rule III.—**A verb having two or more subjects of different persons connected by or or nor, agrees with the subject nearest to it, and must be understood with the rest in the required person and number.** Thus—

1. Either *he* or *I am* to blame.
2. *You* or *Thomas is* mistaken.
3. Neither Jane nor you *study*.

Note.—The construction exemplified in the preceding sentences is not to be commended as illustrating the best usage. It is generally preferable either to put the verb with the first subject, repeating it in its proper form with the second, or to change the construction. Thus:

1. Either he *is* to blame or I *am*.
2. You *are* mistaken or Thomas *is*.
3. Jane *does* not study, nor *do* you.

SPECIAL RULE IV.—**A verb having two subjects of different persons, one affirmative and the other negative, agrees in person and in number with the affirmative subject.** Thus—

1. He, and not I, *is* chosen.
2. I, and not they, *am* to go.

SPECIAL RULE V. — **A collective noun (in which the idea of UNITY is prominent) takes a verb in the singular:** as, "The army *was* victorious."

A noun of multitude (in which the idea of PLURALITY is prominent) takes a verb in the plural: as, "The public *are* often deceived by false appearances."

For the definition of collective noun and noun of multitude, see page 9.*

Ex.—The fleet *are* under orders to set sail.

Incorrect: the collective noun "fleet" requires a verb in the singular; but "are" is in the plural. Hence it should be, "The fleet *is* under orders," etc.

Ex.—The peasantry *goes* barefoot.

Incorrect: "peasantry," a noun of multitude, requires a verb in the plural; but "goes" is in the singular. Hence it should be, "The peasantry *go*," etc.

SPECIAL RULE VI.—**A plural title applied to a single object takes a verb in the singular.** Thus—

1. Johnson's "Lives of the Poets" *is* an admirable work.
2. The United States *occupies* the largest part of North America.†

SPECIAL RULE VII.—**When in any sentence there is an ellipsis of a noun, and more than one is implied, the verb is made plural.** Thus—

1. The Second and the Third *Epistle* of John *contain* each a single chapter.

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* In regard to collective nouns and nouns of multitude, usage, which gives law to language, is quite at fault, the best writers being both at variance with one another and inconsistent with themselves.

† In the case of the term "United States," the present *tendency* is to follow Special Rule VI., though it may be observed that in the Constitution the name is represented by a plural pronoun *them* (Art. III., § 3); *their*, XIII. Amendment, § 1.

2. A literary, a scientific, a wealthy, and a poor *man are* to take part in the meeting. (That is, a literary *man*, a scientific *man*, etc.)

In such cases the implied noun is to be supplied, and the verb is to be parsed as agreeing in the plural with the several subjects connected by *and*.

Special Rule VIII.—**Every finite verb must have a subject expressed or understood.**

An allowable ellipsis of the subject occurs when two or more verbs are connected in the same construction, the subject being expressed with the first and understood with the others: as, "James reads and [James] writes." But when the subject is not implied, or when the verbs are not connected in the same construction, each verb should have its own subject. Thus—

It is thinking *makes* what we read ours.

Incorrect: the finite verb "makes" is without a subject, either expressed or readily understood. The relative *that* should be supplied.

NOTES ON PECULIAR AND IDIOMATIC FORMS.

I. **None—any—all, etc.**—The indefinite pronouns *none*, *any*, *all*, *such*, etc., take verbs in the singular or plural, according as unity or plurality of idea is intended. Thus—

None [=no one] but the brave *deserves* the fair.
None of my friends *were* at home=*all were* not-at-home.
All [=everything] *is* peaceful and still.
All [persons] *fear*, *none* [=no persons] *aid* you, and *few* [persons] understand.

II. **Subject + verb + predicate nominative.**—When the verb *to be* stands between a subject nominative and a predicate nominative, as in the sentence, "The wages of sin is death," doubt may arise as to which determines the number of the verb, since the order of the sentence is sometimes inverted. The principle is, to decide which is the real subject, and make the verb agree with that, construing the other nominative noun as the predicate nominative, even though it holds

the place in the order of words usually held by the subject. Thus in the sentence cited above the natural subject is "death," and the verb is in the singular; "wages" is the predicate nominative.

III. **Divided Subjects.**—When a verb separates its subjects, the verb may agree in number with the first, while it is understood with the rest. Thus—

> The *earth is* the Lord's, and the *fulness* thereof.

This is in seeming violation of Special Rule I.; but the idiom of our language allows it. In parsing, supply the verb where it is understood.

IV. **Poetic License.**—In poetry there are frequent departures from the principle (see Caution 3) that an ellipsis of a verb must not occur where the verb, if supplied, would not agree with its subject. Thus—

> Ah! then and there *was hurrying* to and fro,
> And [there *were*] gathering *tears* and [there *were*] *tremblings* of distress,
> And [there *were*] *cheeks* all pale, which but an hour ago
> Blushed at the praise of their own loveliness.—*Byron.*

In parsing such sentences supply in its correct form the verb understood. Though this construction is permitted by poetic license, it is not allowable in ordinary prose.

V. **Double Subject.**—In prose it is improper to use both a noun and its representative personal pronoun as subject of the same verb, unless they are in apposition. But in poetry this irregularity is common. Thus—

1. The *Count, he* was left to the vulture and hound.
2. For the *deck, it* was their field of fame.

EXERCISE 29.

In the following sentences correct the violations of Rule II.

General Rule.

1. What have become of our friends?
2. The Normans, under which general term is comprehended the Danes, Norwegians, and Swedes, were accustomed to rapine and pillage.
3. I came to see you because I knew you was my old master.
4. Our cousin's kind and even temper endear her to all.
5. What signifies fair words without good deeds?
6. Neither of the parties are much better.
7. There was no data given.

Cautions 1-3.

1. The derivation of these words are uncertain.
2. To these belong the power of licensing places for the sale of spirits.
3. Six months' interest are due.
4. The condition of the crops show that the country has suffered much.
5. The trend of the Rocky Mountains are toward the south.
6. Bless them that curses you.
7. It is an ill wind that blow nobody good.
8. The strata that contains coal belong to the tertiary era.
9. In Alaska the winters are long and the cold intense.

Special Rules I.-III.

1. The fragrant woodbine and the sweet-scented myrtle renders the air in this spot truly delicious.
2. My trusty counsellor and friend have warned me to have no dealings with such men.
3. How pale each worshipful and reverend guest
   Rise from a clergy or a city feast!
4. Every house-top and every steeple show the flag of the republic.
5. To read and write were once an honorary distinction.
6. Our will, and not our stars, make us what we are.
7. Bread and milk are excellent food for children.
8. A word or an epithet paint a whole scene.
9. Neither the captain nor the sailors was saved.
10. One or both of the boys is in the garden.
11. No voice nor sound but their own echoes were heard in reply.
12. Nor eye nor listening ear an object find.
13. I, whom nor avarice nor pleasure move.
14. He or I is to go.
15. I, or thou, or he, are the author of it.

Special Rules IV.-VIII.

1. Not you, but Mary, are the best scholar.
2. The club meet on Tuesday.
3. Congress have adjourned.
4. A herd of cattle peacefully grazing afford a pleasing sight.
5. The assembly thus convened were numerous.
6. Mankind was not united by the bonds of civil society.
7. Campbell's *Pleasures of Hope* were sold for fifty cents.
8. *Silver threads among the Gold* are a hackneyed song.
9. The rising and the falling inflection is to be carefully distinguished.
10. A Webster's and a Worcester's dictionary was consulted.
11. It is a long road has no turning.
12. Our friend brought two loads to market, and were sold at good price.
13. This is an idiom to which our language is strongly inclined, and was formerly very prevalent.

III. ATTRIBUTIVE RELATION.

I. ADJECTIVE AND PARTICIPLE.

Rule III.—Adjectives and participles modify nouns or pronouns.

I. The word "modifies" as here used is synonymous with *relates*, *limits*, *belongs to*—terms employed by different grammarians to denote that the adjective and the participle are *adjunct words*.

II. Adjectives used as complements of incomplete verbs have a double office—that of complements and that of modifiers.

EXERCISE 30.

In the following sentences apply Rule III.*

1. Outflew
Millions of flaming swords, drawn from the thighs
Of mighty cherubim.—*Milton.*
2. With a slow and noiseless footstep
Comes that messenger divine.—*Longfellow.*
3. The hawthorn bush, with seats beneath the shade
For talking age and whispering lovers made.—*Goldsmith.*
4. The younger guest purloined the glittering prize.—*Parnell.*
5. The service past, around the pious man,
With steady zeal, each honest rustic ran.—*Goldsmith.*
6. The wretch, concentred all in self,
Living, shall forfeit fair renown,
And, doubly dying, shall go down
To the vile dust, from whence he sprung,
Unwept, unhonored, and unsung.—*Scott.*
7. The patient face that once had lain upon the bed was glorified and radiant; but his heart found out his sister among all the host.—*Dickens.*
8. First in war, first in peace, and first in the hearts of his countrymen, Washington was second to none in the humble and endearing scenes of private life.—*Henry Lee.*

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* **Model:** "The adjective *flaming* modifies the noun *swords;* the participle *drawn* modifies the noun *swords;* the adjective *the* limits the noun *thighs;* the adjective *mighty* modifies the noun *cherubim*, according to Rule III."

9. How dear to this heart are the scenes of my childhood,
   When fond recollection presents them to view !—*Woodworth.*
10. This day I was gratified with what I had often desired to witness—the condition of the sea in a tempest. I had contemplated the ocean in all its other phases, and they are almost innumerable. At one time it is seen reposing in perfect stillness under the blue sky and bright sun. At another, slightly ruffled, and then its motion causes his rays to tremble and dance in broken fragments of silvery or golden light—and the sight is dazzled by following the track from whence his beams are reflected—while all besides seems to frown in the darkness of its ripple.—*Archbishop Hughes.*

APPLIED SYNTAX OF RULE III.

NOTE.—Adjectives in the English language, being destitute of inflections for gender, number, and case, do not admit of those formal concords with the noun which Latin and Greek, German and French adjectives exhibit. For this reason a violation of Rule III. is scarcely possible. Still some adjectives imply the relation of number, and others present peculiarities of construction; and these properly form the subject of several special rules.

Special Rules under Rule III.

1. Pronominal Adjectives.

SPECIAL RULE I.—**Adjectives that imply unity or plurality must agree with their nouns in number:** as, "*That* sort, *those* sorts;" "*This* hand, *these* hands."

I. Indefinite adjectives denoting *quantity* are used before nouns in the singular; those of *number*, if implying more than one, must be used before plurals: thus—

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
much	**many**
little	**few**
less	**fewer**
least	**fewest**

II. The indefinite adjectives *all*, *some*, *no*, *any*, *other* agree with nouns in either number.

SPECIAL RULE II. —**The adjectives EACH, EVERY, EITHER, NEITHER are used with nouns in the singular only:** as, "*each* man;" "*every* day;" "*either* side;" "*neither* bank."

Either and *neither* denote one of *two* objects only; when more are referred to, *any* or *any one* and *none* or *no one* should be used. Thus, "*any* [or *any one*] of the three," not "*either* of the three." "*None* [or *no one*] of the four," not "*neither* of the four."

OBS.—*Either* should never be used for *both* or for *each*. Such expressions as "On *either* side is level fen," when the writer means on *each* side or on *both* sides, have no justification except that of very loose usage.

2. The Articles.

SPECIAL RULE III.—**When two or more adjectives relate to a noun denoting one and the same object, the article is used before the first only; but if two or more objects are intended, the article must be repeated.**

Thus, in the expression, "*a* tall, old, fat man," reference is made to only *one* man; but "*a* tall, *an* old, and *a* fat man" denotes *three* men.

Ex.—It is difficult in some cases to distinguish between *an* interrogative and exclamatory sentence.

Incorrect: two kinds of "sentence" are intended; hence the article should be used before each noun; that is, we should say, "between *an* interrogative and *an* exclamatory sentence."

OBS.—Sometimes, however, the article is repeated for the sake of emphasis: as, "He returned *a* sadder and *a* wiser man." In such exceptional cases the context will prevent ambiguity.

Ex.—There is a difference between *a* liberal and *a* prodigal hand.

This is an example which may be brought under the latter part of Special Rule III. One hand, which is "liberal," is contrasted with another, which is "prodigal;" hence two objects are thought of, and the article is used with both adjectives.

Ex.—There is about the whole book a vehement, contentious, replying manner.

This sentence is correct. It is here not necessary to repeat the *a*, because it is *one* manner that is spoken of—a manner "vehement," "contentious," and "replying."

Special Rule IV.—**When two or more nouns describe one person, the article is used before the first only.**

"A priest and king" implies that both offices are vested in one individual; "a priest and a king" implies that each office is held by a separate person.

So, also, when two or more appositives are joined to a noun, the article precedes the first only: thus, "Johnson, the bookseller and stationer"=*one* "Johnson," who was both "bookseller and stationer."

Special Rule V.—**When two nouns used as terms of a comparison refer to the same person or thing, the article is omitted with the latter noun; but when they refer to different persons or things, the article must be used with each noun.**

1. He would make a better statesman than lawyer.
2. He would make a better statesman than a lawyer.

In 1, "lawyer" and "statesman" refer to the same person="He would make a better statesman than [he would make a] lawyer." In 2, "lawyer" and "statesman" refer to different persons="He would make a better statesman than a lawyer [would make]."

Special Rule VI.—**The indefinite article should be repeated before each of several nouns when the same form of it would not agree with all.**

Thus we can say, "a man, woman, and child;" but we must not say, "a cow, ox, and pig," because on supplying the expressed article "a," it is not in the form required by "ox."

3. Construction of Comparatives and Superlatives.

Special Rule VII.—**The comparative degree is used when two objects or classes of objects are compared; the superlative, when more than two are compared:** as, "Iron is *harder* than wood." "Could make the *worse* appear the *better* reason." "Oh! *bloodiest* picture in the book of time."

Special Rule VIII.—**When the comparative degree is used, the latter term of comparison should always exclude the former; but when the superlative is used, the latter term should always include the former:** as,

"Russia is *larger* than any *other* country in Europe." "Russia is the *largest* country [of all countries] in Europe."

The following sentences exemplify violations of Special Rule VIII.

1. Bismarck is greater than any German statesman.

As Bismarck is a German statesman, the sentence affirms that he is greater than himself. It should read: "Bismarck is greater than *any other* German statesman" or "than *all other* German statesmen." The phrase *than any other* satisfies the rule by excluding Bismarck from the class with which he is compared. We can properly say, "Bismarck is greater than any *Chinese statesman*," because Bismarck does not belong to the class *Chinese statesmen.*

2. Shakspeare is the most admired of all the other English poets.

In order to satisfy the rule that, when the superlative is used, the latter term of comparison must include the former, the word "other" must be expunged. Thus: "the most admired of all the English poets."

SPECIAL RULE IX.—**Double forms of the same word in the comparative or superlative degree must not be used:** thus, "the *strictest* sect"—not "the *most strictest* sect:" "the *worse* result"—not "the *worser* result."

4. Adjectives for Adverbs.

SPECIAL RULE X.—**An adjective must not be used where the construction requires an adverb.**

I. The construction requires an adverb when *manner* is to be expressed.

1. He arose *slow* from the ground, and resumed his journey.

Incorrect: the intent is to denote the manner of rising; hence the adverb *slowly* should be employed.

2. It is *easier* said than done.

This should be, "*more easily* said," etc.

II. The caution expressed in Special Rule X. must not be understood as applying to an adjective used as the complement of an intransitive or a passive verb, and modifying the subject: as, "Apples taste *sweet*." (See Special Rule II., page 177.)

III. An error analogous to that censured in Special Rule X. is exemplified in the use of *like* for the conjunction *as:* thus—

> Victory must end in possession, like toil in sleep.—*Gladstone.*

This should be, "Victory must end in possession, *as* [does] toil in sleep."

NOTES ON PECULIAR AND IDIOMATIC FORMS.

I. **Not articles.**—In some cases what appears to be an article is not really such. Thus *a* in the phrase "twice *a* week" was originally a weakened form of the preposition *on* (compare *a*board=*on* board). In this construction, the proper parsing is to call "a week" an adverbial phrase.

The word *the* in such constructions as "*the* more *the* merrier" is not, strictly speaking, an article. (For its real nature, see page 88.)

II. **"Many a," etc.**—The indefinite article usually precedes an adjective relating to a noun; but the idiom of our language permits a departure from this usage with the adjectives *many*, *what*, or *such:* as—

> Full *many a* flower is born to blush unseen.
> *What a* piece of work is man.
> *Such a* Roman.

It is proper to parse *many a* as a complex adjective, used idiomatically.

III. **"A hundred," etc.**—The words *hundred*, *thousand*, *pair*, *dozen*, etc., may be used with the indefinite article, for the reason that these words are originally nouns: thus, "a hundred sheep." This construction is idiomatic: in Anglo-Saxon, *hundred*, *thousand*, etc., were followed by a noun in the genitive case, as though we said "a hundred *of* sheep." (It may be noted that we still say, "a pair *of* stockings," "a score *of* men," though, also, "a dozen men.") In parsing, it is proper to consider "a hundred" as forming a complex adjective.

IV. **"First two," etc.**—When two numerals relate to one noun, the ordinal generally precedes the cardinal: as, "the first two chapters of Matthew," "the last three stanzas of the hymn." (It is plain that, strictly speaking, there cannot be two *first* chapters, or three *last*

stanzas.) However, the terms "two first," "three last," and the like, might occur in another construction, and with a different meaning—namely, as the *first of each of two series*, or the *last of each of three series*, etc.

For instance, if there were two classes in a school, the boys at the head of each might be styled the "two first;" or, if there were three classes, the boys at the foot of each might be termed the "three last."

V. **Double Comparatives, etc.**—Some of our older writers, when they wished to be emphatic, employed double comparatives or superlatives: thus—

The unkindest beast *more kinder* than mankind.—*Shakspeare.*
This was the *most unkindest* cut of all.—*Ibid.*

Such constructions were once good English, but are contrary to modern usage.*

EXERCISE 31.

In the following sentences correct the violations of Rule III.

Special Rules I., II.

1. These kind of verbs are more expressive than their radicals.
2. These sort of peaches are very numerous.
3. They could not speak; and so I left them both,
   To bear this tidings to the bloody king.
4. Besides, he had not much provisions left for his army.
5. Not less than twenty dictionaries of the English language have been published.
6. Charles formed expensive habits, and by those means became poor.
7. John, James, and Henry are faithful boys, and either lad will carry the message.

Special Rules III.-VII.

1. The governor and the commander-in-chief [one person] has arrived.
2. The governor and commander-in-chief [two persons] have arrived.
3. The rich and poor have a common interest.
4. The man wore a large, a dark, and a faded cloak.

---

* "And this [*i. e.*, a double superlative] is a certaine kind of English Atticisme, or eloquent phrase of speech, imitating the manner of the *most ancientest and finest* Grecians, who for more emphasis and vehemencies sake used to speake thus."—*Ben Jonson.*

5. A red and a white flag was the only one displayed from the tower.
6. A hot and cold spring were found in the same neighborhood.
7. The first and second book are difficult.
8. A man, woman, and infant were riding in the cars.

Special Rules VIII.-X.

1. Both of these opinions have the sanction of the highest authority, and it may be well to examine which of them is the wisest.
2. Shakspeare is more admired than any English poet.
3. When reason doubtful, like the Samian letter, points him two ways, the narrowest is the best.
4. Of all other figures of speech, irony should be the most carefully employed.
5. This kind of wit is that which abounds in Cowley, more than in any author that ever wrote.
6. A fondness for show is, of all other follies, the most vain.
7. A more worthier man you cannot find.
8. The poor girl still coughs considerable.
9. Chatterton died miserable poor.
10. The French did not feel the war like we did.

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2. NOUNS IN THE POSSESSIVE CASE.

Rule IV.—A noun modifying another noun signifying a different thing is in the possessive case: as, "*man's* life;" "the *boy's* books."

The noun to which the noun in the possessive case stands in the attributive relation may be called the *principal term*.

EXERCISE 32.

In the following sentences apply Rule IV.*

1. Now Jove suspends his golden scales in air,
   Weighs the men's wit against the lady's hair.
2. Little-minded people's thoughts move in such small circles that five minutes' conversation gives you an arc long enough to determine their whole curve.—*O. W. Holmes.*

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* **Model**: "The noun *men's* in the possessive case modifies the noun *wit*, according to Rule IV.; the noun *lady's* in the possessive case modifies the noun *hair*, according to Rule IV."

3. I inhaled the violet's breath.—*Emerson.*
4. Tell me what thy lordly name is on the Night's Plutonian shore.—*Poe.*
5. The spider's thread is cable to man's tie on earthly bliss.—*Young.*
6. Richer by far is the heart's adoration.—*Heber.*
7. 'Twas made of the white snail's pearly shell.—*Drake.*
8. Quench the timber's falling embers,
   Quench the red leaves in December's
   Hoary rime and chilling spray.—*Whittier.*
9. Let all the ends thou aim'st at be thy country's [ends], thy God's, and truth's.—*Shakspeare.*
10. O, well for the fisherman's boy,
    That he shouts with his sister at play.—*Tennyson.*

APPLIED SYNTAX OF RULE IV.

Special Rules under Rule IV.

SPECIAL RULE I.—**The principal term, when sufficiently obvious, is often omitted**: as, "Ball and Black's [store];" "the Court of St. James's [palace];" "from Stiles's pocket into Nokes's [pocket]."

SPECIAL RULE II.—**When joint ownership or possession is attributed to two or more persons, the name of only the last mentioned takes the sign of the possessive**: as, "Liddell and *Scott's* Greek-English Lexicon."

In such cases the nouns may be parsed as co-ordinate terms in the possessive case, but having the possessive sign affixed to the last only.

SPECIAL RULE III.—**When separate ownership is attributed to two or more persons, the name of each should be in the possessive case**: as, "*Webster's* and *Worcester's* dictionaries."

In such cases the principal term after each possessive noun may be supplied in parsing.

SPECIAL RULE IV.—**When ownership is attributed to a single person described by two or more nouns in apposition, the noun immediately preceding the principal term, expressed or understood, alone takes the possessive sign**: as, "At Smith, the *bookseller's* [store];" "for my servant *David's* sake."

In such instances the two or more nouns are each to be parsed as in the possessive case according to the rule of apposition. (See Rule V.)

SPECIAL RULE V.—**In a complex term the last word takes the possessive sign:** as, "My father-in-*law's* house;" "The bard of *Lomond's* lay;" "Henry the *Eighth's* reign."

In parsing, a complex noun is to be taken as a whole.

SPECIAL RULE VI.—**A noun or a pronoun in the possessive case may relate to a gerund:** as, "This will be the effect of the *pupil's* composing frequently;" "This will be the effect of *his* composing frequently."

I. While the gerund in its noun-character may thus take a possessive noun or pronoun as an attributive, it may in its verb-character receive a complement or an adjunct. Hence result such constructions as—

1. Disease and death were consequences of the *man's* neglecting *treatment.*
2. This is the result of *his* being *diligent in his youth.*

In these forms of expression there is nothing anomalous: the peculiarities of construction result naturally from the nature of the gerund.

II. It follows that the general rule is violated when in this construction an attributive noun or pronoun is *not* put in the possessive case: thus, "There is no doubt of the *bill* passing the House," should be, "There is no doubt of the bill's passing the House."

EXERCISE 33.

In the following sentences correct the violations of Rule IV.

Special Rules II.-VI.

1. The bridge is opposite Brown's Brothers'.
2. Was Cain's and Abel's father there?
3. We have men and boy's clothing.
4. There is but little difference between the Earth and Venus's diameter.
5. Nothing shall die of all that is the children's of Israel.
6. Call at Smith's, the bookseller and stationer's.
7. We read of Jack's the Giant-killer wonderful exploits.
8. Thy Maker's will has placed thee here,
   A Maker's wise and good.
9. We heard of your honor coming to town.
10. Day and night are a consequence of the earth revolving on its axis.

3. APPOSITIVES.

Rule V. — A noun or pronoun used to explain another noun or pronoun is put by apposition in the same case: as—

1. Thomson, the *poet*, was a contemporary of Hume, the *historian*.
2. 'Tis I, *Hamlet* the *Dane*.

I. The case of the principal term depends on its grammatical relation in the sentence: this must first be determined by the appropriate rule of syntax, before the case of the appositive can be known.

II. A phrase or a proposition may be in apposition with a noun: thus—

1. O let us still the secret JOY partake
   To follow virtue e'en for virtue's sake.—Pope.
2. In the serene expression of her face he read the divine BEATITUDE,
   "*Blessed are the pure in heart.*"—*Longfellow.*

EXERCISE 34.

In the following sentence apply Rule V.*

1. 'Tis I, Hamlet the Dane.—*Shakspeare.*
2. At midnight, in the forest shades,
   Bozzaris ranged his Suliote band,
   True as the steel of their tried blades,
   Heroes in heart and hand.—*Halleck.*
3. This is my son, mine own Telemachus.—*Tennyson.*
4. There, swinging wide at her moorings, lay
   The Somerset, British man-of-war—
   A phantom ship.—*Longfellow.*
5. So work the honey-bees,
   Creatures that by a rule in nature teach
   The art of order to a peopled kingdom.—*Shakspeare.*
6. That best portion of a good man's life—
   His little, nameless, unremembered acts
   Of kindness and of love.—*Wordsworth.*
7. It is seldom that the father and the son, he who has borne the weight, and he who has been brought up in the lustre of the diadem, exhibit equal capacity for the administration of affairs.—*Gibbon.*

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* **Model**: "The noun *Hamlet*, explaining the pronoun *I*, is in the nominative case; the noun *Dane*, explaining *Hamlet*, is in the nominative case, according to Rule V."

NOTES ON PECULIAR AND IDIOMATIC FORMS.

I. **Each Other.** — In the sentences, "They loved each other," "They hated one another," the words "each" and "other," and "one" and "another," though reciprocally related, are not in the same construction. The sentences are contracted forms of "They loved, *each* [loved] *other*," and "They hated *one* [hated] *another*." "Each" is in the nominative case, in apposition to "they," while "other" is in the objective case, governed by the verb "loved." "One" is in apposition to "they," and "another" is object of "hated."

This construction is an instance of the action of the *law of brevity*. On the same principle we may explain "They heard *each other's* voice" =They heard, *each* (heard) *other's* voice.*

II. **Appositive with "as."**—A species of apposition is formed by introducing the attributive noun by *as*. Thus—

Cicero as an *orator* was bold—as a *soldier*, *he* was timid.

That is, Cicero, *considered as* an orator, etc. This construction is always elliptical; in parsing, either the ellipsis may be supplied, or it may be stated that the appositive is introduced by *as*, and that the construction is idiomatic.

III. **Appositive to a Pronoun.**—A puzzling instance of apposition is exemplified in the following construction:

Thus shall mankind *his* guardian care engage,
The promised *father* of the future age.—*Pope*.

It is customary to construe the noun "father" as in the possessive case, in apposition with "his." But it is better to treat "his" as equivalent to *of him*. "Father" is, then, in the objective case, in apposition with *him* (=the guardian care of *him*, the *father*, etc).

The same explanation, taken in connection with what is said in Note II. in regard to the appositive introduced by *as*, will explain

* "Such phrases as *to each other*, *from one another*, are corruptions made upon a false analogy, though they are now thoroughly fixed in the language." —Mason: *English Grammar*. The Old-English constructions were *each to other*, *one from another*.

constructions like the following: "The *general's* popularity as a *commander* increases daily"=The popularity of the *general* [objective] as a *commander* [objective] increases daily.

IV. **Pronouns used Adjectively.**—The use of a pronoun as principal term to a noun appositive is to be distinguished from a pronoun used in the manner of an adjective. The former is illustrated by such constructions as the following—

> But *he*, our gracious *Master*, kind as just,
> Knowing our frame, remembers we are dust.

This comes under the regular rule of apposition, and differs from the following:

1. And you, *ye waters*,* roll.
2. *We poets* in our youth begin in gladness.

Constructions like these last are usually treated as instances of apposition; but it would perhaps be more logical to consider a pronoun thus employed as used adjectively, just as a noun may be used adjectively.

V. **Appositive to a Statement.**—Sometimes the idea expressed by an entire sentence is repeated pleonastically by means of a noun: thus, "He rashly ventured to ascend the mountain without a guide, an *act* which cost him his life;" that is, *his rashly venturing*, etc., was an *act*, etc.

EXERCISE 35.

In the following sentences correct the violations of Rule V.

1. The insult was offered to my friend, he whom I loved as a brother.
2. We kept silent, her and me.
3. Do you speak so to me, I who have so often befriended you?
4. The dress was made by Worth, the milliner, he that we saw in Paris.
5. Resolve me, why the cottager and king,
   Him whom sea-severed realms obey, and him
   Who steals his whole dominion from the waste,
   Repelling winter blasts with mud and straw,
   Disquieted alike, draw sigh for sigh.

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* Observe that while "ye" is used adjectively, there is a real instance of apposition between "waters" and "you."

IV. COMPLEMENTARY RELATION.

1. COMPLEMENT OF TRANSITIVE VERBS.

Rule VI.—The object of a transitive verb is in the objective case.

I. The **object**, or *complement* (usually called the *direct object*), of a transitive verb may be:

1. A *noun:* as, "Love your *enemies*."
2. A *pronoun:* as, "Follow *me*."
3. An *infinitive* or a *phrase:* as—

   1. Learn *to labor* and *to wait* (simple infinitives as objects).
   2. Now leave *complaining*, and begin your tea (gerund as object).
   3. Ladies, you deserve *to have a temple built you* (infinitive phrase as object).

4. A *proposition:* as, "I perceived *that we brought good-humor with us*."

NOTE.—A phrase or a clause used as the object of a verb is parsed as in the singular number and objective case. It should be understood that, with a few idiomatic exceptions, Rule VI. can apply only to transitive verbs in the *active* voice.

II. **Verbals.**—The object may be the complement not only of a finite verb, but of its *verbals*—namely, the infinitives and the participles: thus—

1. To PUT [inf.] on your *harness* is different from PUTTING [gerund] *it* off.
2. The thief, SEEING [participle] the *officer*, ran away. HAVING EXPLORED [part.] the *islands*, Columbus returned to Spain.

III. **Arrangement.**—In the regular order the object follows the verb: thus—

> And each separate dying ember
> Wrought its *ghost* upon the floor.—*Poe.*

But for rhetorical effect the object may precede the verb:* thus—

> *Honey* from out the gnarlèd hive I'll bring,
> And *apples* wan with sweetness gather thee.—*Keats.*

EXERCISE 36.

In the following sentences apply Rule VI.†

1. The Muses haunt clear spring, or shady grove, or sunny hill.
2. Not a soldier discharged his farewell shot.—*Wolfe*
3. When the enamoured sunny light
   Brightens her that was so bright.—*Wordsworth.*
4. Their furrow oft the stubborn glebe has broke.—*Gray.*
5. Beaux banish beaux, and coaches coaches drive.—*Pope.*
6. The gushing flood the tartans dyed.—*Scott.*
7. Me he restored, and him he hanged.—*Bible.*
8. Knowledge in general expands the mind, exalts the faculties, refines the taste of pleasure, and opens innumerable sources of intellectual enjoyment.—*Robert Hall.*
9. For my own part I have ever believed, and do now know, that there are witches.—*Sir T. Browne.*
10. They lost no more time in asking questions.—*Dickens*
11. They follow an adventurer whom they fear, and obey a power which they hate; we serve a monarch whom we love—a God whom we adore. —*Sheridan.*
12. Let me live a life‡ of faith,
    Let me die thy people's death.‡—*Newton*
13. He gathered new and greater armies from his own land—from subjugated lands. He called forth the young and brave—one from every household—from the Pyrenees to the Zuyder Zee—from Jura to the ocean. He marshalled them into long and majestic columns, and went forth to seize that universal dominion which seemed almost within his grasp.—*Channing.*

---

* It sometimes happens, especially in poetry, that ambiguity is produced by these transpositions. Thus in the well-known line from Gray's *Elegy*—

"And all the *air* a solemn *stillness* holds"—

it is impossible to ascertain from the mere form of construction whether the "air" holds the "stillness," or the "stillness" holds the "air." We may, however, infer that "stillness" is the object; and, in fact, in this inverted order the object generally comes next to the verb.

† **Model:** "The nouns *spring*, *grove*, and *hill*, objects of the transitive verb *haunt*, are in the objective case, according to Rule VI."

‡ Cognate objectives.

APPLIED SYNTAX OF RULE VI.

Violations of Rule VI.

I. As regards **nouns**, Rule VI. cannot be violated, since nouns have no inflection for the objective case.

II. As regards **pronouns**, the rule is seldom violated when the pronoun object immediately follows the verb; but there is liability to error when the construction is inverted or elliptical: thus—

1. They that honor me I will honor.

Incorrect: "they" is the object of the verb "will honor," and should therefore be in the objective case—"*Them* that honor," etc.

2. Let the able-bodied fight, and *they* that are feeble do guard duty at home.

Incorrect: "they" is designed as the object of the verb "let" understood, and should therefore be *them* (or *those*). Hence—

Caution. — *When a pronoun object is at a distance from its governing verb, care must be taken to use the objective form of the pronoun.*

Special Rules under Rule VI.

Special Rule I.—**Some transitive verbs, as ALLOW, BRING, BUY, etc., may be followed by two objects—a direct and an indirect object:** thus—

1. Send *us* [indirect] a *message* [direct].
2. Tell *him* [indirect] *to write* [direct].

I. The principal verbs taking this construction are:

allow	**do**	**make**	**pour**	**send**
bring	**draw**	**offer**	**present**	**show**
buy	**get**	**order**	**promise**	**sing**
carry	**give**	**pass**	**provide**	**tell**
cost	**leave**	**pay**	**refuse**	**throw**
deny	**lend**	**play**	**sell**	**write**

II. The indirect (or *personal*) object always precedes the direct. It is to be parsed as "in the objective case, indirect object of"—the verb.

SPECIAL RULE II.—**The passive forms of the verbs ALLOW, BRING, BUY, etc., sometimes admit a direct object:** thus—

1. We were promised an *office*.
2. He was refused *support*.

NOTE.—Verbs in the passive voice almost always require a complement in the nominative case (see Rule VII.); and Special Rule II. is designed to provide for the very peculiar use of an *object* after certain passive verbs. These verbs (the passives of those enumerated under Special Rule I.), which in the active voice take both a direct (or personal) and an indirect object, change the personal object into the subject in the passive construction, and retain the objective complement. For explanation, see "Idiomatic Forms," page 171.

SPECIAL RULE III.—**Verbs signifying to MAKE, CREATE, ELECT, APPOINT, NAME, CALL, and some others of like meaning, take a double object —a direct object and an attributive complement in the objective case:** thus—

1. The people elected *Washington president.*
2. His parents named *him John.*
3. They made *Rollo captain.*

I. In this construction the object *made*, *named*, *elected*, etc., is the direct object. The object denoting *what* the person was made, named, elected, etc., is sometimes called the *factitive object*;* but the term *attributive* object or complement is preferable. The direct object always precedes the attributive object.

NOTE.—This construction is often treated as a case of appositional use—the attributive object being construed as an appositive. But this is incorrect. The attributive object has a very peculiar connection with the verb; and, with respect to meaning, it is the action of the verb *as modified by the attributive complement* that passes over to the direct object. Thus it is the action of *making captain* that passes over to "Rollo," of *naming John* that passes over to "him," and of *electing president* that passes over to "Washington."

II. The attributive complement may be an infinitive: as, "They made him (to) *labor*."

III. In the passive construction the direct object becomes the subject, and the attributive object is converted into the predicate nominative (see Rule VII.).

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* "Factitive," from Latin *facere*, *factum*, to make; because the verb to *make* stands as the type of this class of verbs.

SPECIAL RULE IV.—**Some transitive verbs take an adjective complement modifying their object:** as—

1. Virtue renders life *happy*.
2. This struck me *dumb*.

NOTE.—It is customary to treat such an adjective as "happy" (see sentence 1 above) as a *mere* modifier (or attributive) of "life," ignoring wholly its use as a *complement*. In this view it is impossible to discriminate in analysis between "We call the man rich" and "We call the rich man."

SPECIAL RULE V.—**An infinitive, a gerund, or a participle may take an adjective as its complement:** thus—

1. To be *virtuous* is to be *happy*.
2. He deceived people by seeming *poor*.
3. Feeling *cold*, he put on his coat.

NOTES ON PECULIAR AND IDIOMATIC FORMS.

I. **"Ask" and "Teach."**—The verbs *ask* and *teach* take two complements, both of which are direct objects; but these complements are of a different nature from the complements of the kind of verbs considered under Special Rule I. (page 168). Verbs of the latter sort, as *allow*, *bring*, *buy*, etc., take a *direct* and an *indirect* object. But when we say, "The teacher asked *John* a *question*," "Murray taught the *boy grammar*," "John" and "question," "boy" and "grammar" form each a double objective complement (both being direct objects), apparently as though *ask* and *teach* expressed at the same time two distinct meanings. And in Latin the verbs *ask* and *teach* govern two accusatives.

When the passive construction is used, the noun denoting what is asked or taught remains in the objective case, the direct object of the verb: thus, "John was asked a *question*;" "The boy was taught *grammar*." (In Latin, this object retains its accusative form.) The construction is idiomatic, and should be treated as an exceptional instance of a passive verb having the power of governing a noun in the objective case.

II. **Objective after Passive.**—The use of an objective-case complement after the passive forms of the verbs referred to in Special Rule II. (page 169) may receive some illustration from what has been said respecting the verbs *ask* and *teach*. Take the examples—

1. The conqueror offered *them* [indirect object] their *lives* [direct object].
2. The porter refused *them* [indirect object] *admittance* [direct object].

Transforming these into the passive construction, we may say—

1. Their lives were offered *them* [indirect object] by the conqueror.
2. Admittance was refused *them* [indirect object] by the porter.

But there is nothing unusual in these forms, for "them" is in both instances an indirect object (dative), which *any* passive verb may take.

But we may also turn the sentences thus—

1. They were offered their lives [direct object] by the conqueror.
2. They were refused admittance [direct object] by the porter.

The use of a direct object after the passive forms of the verbs *ask* and *teach* is a regular, though rare, construction; but its employment after the verbs here referred to is irregular and idiomatic, and is contrary to the general analogies of language.

It is probable that this construction has arisen from the operation of the "Law of Extension [or Confusion] of Construction," that is, by the extension of the construction in *ask* and *teach* to verbs of a different nature. From the fact that we may say "*He* was taught *grammar*" (in which "he" is regularly made the subject of the passive, because forming the *direct* object of the verb in the active voice—"taught *him* grammar"), a transition has insensibly been made to the usage of saying, "*They* were refused *admittance*," which presents the anomaly of converting an indirect object into a subject.*

EXERCISE 37.

In the following sentences correct the violations of Rule VI.

1. Who did you say you met this morning?
2. Who should I meet the other day but him.

---

* This construction is by many grammarians pronounced wholly improper and ungrammatical. But the form in question cannot thus be proscribed, for it has the authority of usage, both popular and literary. The office of the grammarian is to explain what *is*, not to legislate as to what *should be*.

3. My father allowed my brother and I to accompany him.
4. Let you and I advance.
5. We don't care about your praising we poor fellows.
6. He wished to know who he should love.
7. I do not know who to send.

---

2. COMPLEMENT OF INTRANSITIVE AND PASSIVE VERBS.

Rule VII.—A noun or pronoun used as the complement of an intransitive or a passive verb is in the nominative case: thus—

I am *he;* Washington became *president;* Napoleon was elected *emperor.*

I. The complement of an intransitive or a passive verb is generally called the *predicate nominative.*

II. Rule VII. is confined in its application to the limited number of intransitive verbs of *incomplete predication*, since most intransitive verbs take no complement. The principal intransitive verbs of incomplete predication are: *be*, *become*, *appear*, *seem*, *stand*, *walk* (and other verbs of *position*, *motion*, or *condition*); together with the passive forms of the verbs *make*, *create*, *elect*, *appoint*, *name*, *call*, and others of like meaning.

EXERCISE 38.

In the following sentences apply Rule VII.*

1. Tell me not in mournful numbers
   Life is but an empty dream.—*Longfellow.*
2. The grave is not its goal.—*Ibid.*
3. It is I—be not afraid.—*Bible.*
4. Breathes there a man with soul so dead,
   Who never to himself hath said,
   This is my own, my native land?—*Scott.*
5. The proper study of mankind is man.—*Pope.*
6. And the earth was all rest, and the air was all love.—*Shelley.*
7. The better part of valor is discretion.—*Shakspeare.*

---

* **Model:** "The noun *dream* used as the complement of the intransitive verb *is*, is in the nominative case, according to Rule VII."

8. The other shape—
If shape it might be called that shape had none
Distinguishable in member, joint, or limb;
Or substance might be called that shadow seem'd,
For each seem'd either:—black it stood as night.—*Milton.*

APPLIED SYNTAX OF RULE VII.

Special Rules under Rule VII.

SPECIAL RULE I.—**The infinitives and the participles of intransitive or passive verbs may take as complement a noun or pronoun explanatory of, and in the same case with, a noun or pronoun which precedes them.**

1. It was thought to be *he.*

"He" is used as the complement of "to be," and is in the nominative case, because "it" is in the nominative case.

2. I believed him to be a scholar.

"Scholar" is used as the complement of the verb "to be," and is in the objective case, because "him" is in the objective case, object of "believed."

3. I cannot help being an *admirer* of beauty.

"Admirer" is explanatory of "I," and hence is in the nominative case.

SPECIAL RULE II.—**An intransitive or a passive verb may take as complement a predicate adjective modifying the subject:** as—

The fields are *green.*
The nation became *powerful.*
Some men are called *happy.*

Violations of Rule VII.

Case 1.—*In the use of the pronoun* who.

The pronoun *who* is placed before the verb *to be*, representing a complement whose natural position would be after the verb: thus, "I know *who* you are" ("I know you are *John*"). This peculiarity of position greatly increases the liability to a violation of Rule VII.: thus—

Whom do men say that I am?

Substituting another pronoun that would answer to the pronoun "whom," we have,

Do men say that I am *he?*

The construction here plainly requires the predicate nominative: Hence—

Caution 1.—*In the employment of the relative and interrogative pronoun* who *as predicate nominative, care must be taken that the pronoun is in the nominative form.*

Case 2.—*In the use of pronoun complements with the verbals of intransitive verbs:* thus—

Who do you suppose it to be?

Incorrect: "who" is designed as complement of "to be," indicating the same thing as "it." But "it" is in the objective case, as object of "suppose;" so that "who" should be *whom*, to agree in case with "it." Hence—

It being *her*, there was nothing more to be said.

Incorrect: the participle *being* is preceded by "it," in the nominative case—so that "her" should be *she*. Hence—

Caution 2.—*In the use of a pronoun as complement an intransitive verbal must agree in case with the noun or pronoun preceding the verbal.*

EXERCISE 39.

In the following sentences correct the violations of Rule VII.

1. I would act the same part if I were him.
2. They believed it to be I.
3. Whom do you think it is?
4. Who do you suppose it to be?
5. It is them, you said, deserve most blame.
6. I little thought it had been him.
7. Can you tell whom that man is?
8. It might have been him, but there is no proof of it.
9. Let him be whom he might be.
10. Those are the persons who he thought true to his interests.

V. ADVERBIAL RELATION.

Rule VIII.—An adverb modifies a verb, an adjective, or another adverb.

I. The responsives *yes* and *no* are used independently: as, "Is he at home?" "Yes" (=He is at home).

II. Modal adverbs are often used to modify an entire proposition: as, "*Truly*, the world does move."

EXERCISE 40.

In the following sentences apply Rule VIII.*

1. The very fairest flowers usually wither the most quickly.
2. Slowly and sadly we laid him down.—*Wolfe.*
3. And now a bubble bursts, and now a world.—*Pope.*
4. For them no more the blazing hearth shall burn.—*Gray.*
5. Ill blows the wind that profits nobody.—*Shakspeare.*
6. Freely we serve because we freely love.—*Milton.*
7. When here, but three days since I came,
   Bewildered in pursuit of game,
   All seemed as peaceful and as still
   As the mist slumbering on yon hill.—*Scott.*

APPLIED SYNTAX OF RULE VIII.

Special Rules under Rule VIII.

SPECIAL RULE I.—**Adverbs must be placed in the position that will render the sentence the most perspicuous and agreeable.**

Adverbs are for the most part placed before adjectives, after a verb in the simple form, and after the first auxiliary in the compound form. This rule (which applies to adverbial phrases as well as to simple adverbs) is a very general principle, to which there are many exceptions.

NOTE.—The proper placing of adverbs is a matter of nice taste and of keen judgment. The art will best be learned, not by studying rules that are subject to numberless exceptions, but by dealing with actual examples.

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* **Model:** "The adverb *very* modifies the adjective *fairest;* the adverbs *usually* and *most quickly* modify the verb *wither*, according to Rule VIII."

1. We cannot deprive them of merit *wholly*.

The adverb "wholly" is inelegantly placed. It is meant to relate to the verb "deprive," and the intervention of the words "them of merit" between the adverb and the verb is confusing. It should be, "We cannot *wholly* deprive them of merit."

2. I hope *not much* to tire those I shall not happen to please.—*Doctor Johnson.*

Doctor Johnson did not mean to say that he did not *much hope* to tire, but that he hoped not to tire *much*. The sentence should be turned in this manner: "I hope I shall not *much* tire those whom I shall [or may] not happen to please."

3. This mode of expression *rather* suits familiar than grave style.—*Murray's Grammar.*

Better thus: "This mode of expression suits [a] familiar *rather* than [a] grave style."

4. A master-mind was *equally* wanting in the cabinet and in the field.

This should be, "Was wanting *equally* in the cabinet," etc. In this example, as in No. 3, the adverb has a *mixed reference*. "Equally" modifies "wanting," but it has reference also to the phrase "in the cabinet and in the field." The principle in such cases is, that the adverb should be placed between the two words or expressions to which it has reference.

5. I have been disappointed *greatly* at your conduct.

The adverb *greatly* is not correctly placed. The sentence should read thus: "I have been *greatly* disappointed," etc. The principle in such cases is, that in compound tenses adverbs should be inserted between the auxiliary and the participle.

6. He used to *often* come.
I wished to *really* know.

With the simple infinitive, the adverb must never separate the sign *to* from the verb; it must either precede or it must follow the *whole* infinitive form. Thus, "He used *often* to come," or "to come *often*." "I wished *really* to know," or "to know *really*." With the compound infinitive the same rule applies as in the compound tenses. We say, "It is believed to have *often* happened;" "He is thought to be *well* informed on that subject."

Only.—The most troublesome of English adverbs is "only."* According as this word is placed in a sentence, it may express several very different meanings.

1. "*Only* he mourned for his brother." "Only" here expresses an antithetical relation equivalent to *but*. He was generally a cold-hearted man, *only* (*but*, as an exception to his general character) he mourned for his brother.
2. "He-*only* [alone] mourned for his brother." No one else mourned for him.
3. "He *only*-mourned for his brother." He did nothing else.
4. "He mourned *only* for his brother." And for no other reason.
5. "He mourned for his *only* brother." His *sole* brother; *only*, an adjective.
6. "He mourned for his brother *only*." And for no one else ("only"= *alone*).

The following are instances of the faulty placing of this adverb:

1. A term which *only* implies the idea of persons.

The force of exclusion possessed by "only" is meant to apply not to the word "implies," but to the word "persons." It should be, "which implies the idea of persons *only*."

2. I can *only* regard them as Scotticisms.

The force of exclusion in "only" is meant to apply not to the verb "regard," but to the noun "Scotticisms." The sentence should be, "I can regard them *only* as Scotticisms."

3. When the article stands *only* before the first of two or more connected nouns.

This should be, "When the article stands before *only* the first," etc.

SPECIAL RULE II.—**An adverb should not be misused for a predicate adjective**: thus—

1. The rose smells *sweet*—not *sweetly*.
2. Gutturals sound *harsh*—not *harshly*.
3. Mary looks *cold*—not *coldly*.

We say, "Mary *looks* cold" [=she is cold in look or appearance], because we do not wish to mark the *manner* of looking, but to denote a *quality* of Mary. If we change the intransitive into the transitive construction by the addition of a preposition, and say, "Mary looks *on* John

* "A blunder of which the instances are innumerable is the misplacing of the word 'only.' Indeed, this is so common, so absolutely universal, one may almost say that 'only' cannot be found in its proper place in any book within the whole range of English literature."—Gould's *Good English*, p. 100.

coldly," the use of the adverb is correct, because in this instance we wish to denote the *manner of her looking on*, and *not* a quality of Mary.

SPECIAL RULE III.—**Two negatives should never be used to express a negation.**

1. I have *not* done *nothing*.

This means I have done *something*. If a negation is intended, say, "I have done *nothing*," or, "I have not done *anything*."

2. He has eaten no bread *nor* drunk *no* water these two days.

The negative in *nor* (=*not or*), together with the word *no* before *water*, makes a double negative. Correct thus: "He has eaten no bread *and* he has drunk no water;" or, "He has neither eaten *any* bread *nor* has he drunk *any* water," etc.

NOTE.—Double negatives are elegantly used to express an affirmative in an indirect way. In place of saying, "I am somewhat acquainted with his virtues," the sentence might be turned thus: "I am *not un*-acquainted with his virtues."

SPECIAL RULE IV.—**A noun denoting measure of TIME, DISTANCE, VALUE, etc., may be used as an objective adverbial without a preposition:** thus—

1. The man is seventy *years* old.
2. Our school is three *miles* from the church.
3. You are paid twenty *dollars* a *week*.

EXERCISE 41.

In the following sentences correct the errors in the use of adverbs.

1. We always should prefer our duty to our pleasure.
2. They seemed to be nearly dressed alike.
3. The heavenly bodies are in motion perpetually.
4. The colon may be properly applied in the following case.
5. By greatness I not only mean the bulk of any single object, but the largeness of the whole view.
6. Thales was not only famous for his knowledge of nature, but for his moral wisdom.
7. The apple tastes sweetly.
8. The dog smells disagreeably.
9. Velvet feels smoothly.
10. I have not had no dinner.
11. I will not take that course by no means.
12. He spoke the piece clear and distinct.

VI. REPRESENTATIVE RELATION.

PRONOUN AND ANTECEDENT.

Rule IX.—A pronoun agrees in person, gender, and number with its antecedent or the word that it represents: thus—

To *him who* in the love of nature holds
Communion with *her* visible forms, *she* speaks
A various language.

I. Relatives agree with their *antecedents;* personal and other pronouns, with the *word* (noun or its equivalent) *represented.*

II. Pronouns agree in *person*, *gender*, and *number* with their antecedents or represented words; but the *case* of a pronoun is determined by its construction in the sentence. Hence it usually takes two rules to parse a pronoun—Rule IX. for the concord of person, gender, and number, and the appropriate rule of syntax for its case.

EXERCISE 42.

In the following sentences apply Rule IX.*

1. Fools who came to scoff remained to pray.—*Goldsmith.*
2. This petulance ruined Essex, who had to deal with a spirit naturally as proud as his own.—*Macaulay.*
3. Shall he alone whom rational we call,
   Be pleased with nothing, if not blessed with all?—*Pope.*
4. A land of slaves shall ne'er be mine.—*Byron.*
5. Some natural tears they dropped, but wiped them soon.—*Milton.*
6. They [the Indians] are shrinking before the mighty tide which is pressing them away; they must soon hear the roar of the last wave, which will settle over them forever.—*Sprague.*
7. Cold is thy brow, my son! and I am chill,
   As to my bosom I have tried to press thee.—*Willis.*

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* **Model:** "The relative pronoun *who* is of the third person, plural number, and common gender, to agree with its antecedent *fools*, according to Rule IX. It is in the nominative case according to Rule I."

8. Woodman, spare that tree;
   Touch not a single bough;
In youth it sheltered me,
   And I'll protect it now.
'Twas my forefather's hand
   That placed it near his cot;
Then, woodman, let it stand;
   Thy axe shall harm it not.—*Morris.*

APPLIED SYNTAX OF RULE IX.

Special Rules under Rule IX.

SPECIAL RULE I.—**A pronoun in the singular is used to represent—**

1. Two or more words in the singular number connected by *or* or *nor*.
2. A collective noun denoting unity of idea.
3. The words *each*, *every*, *either*, *neither*, *one*, used either with or without a noun or nouns, however connected.

I. **Correct Constructions.**—The following are instances of correct constructions under Special Rule I.:

1. But love or friendship, with *its* pleasures and embarrassments, was insufficient to occupy Swift's active mind.
2. The army dragged *itself* along through the mud.
3. Each in *his* narrow cell forever laid.
   Every season has *its* peculiar power of striking the mind.
   Has either girl finished *her* lesson?
   Neither of these classifications is in *itself* erroneous.
   One is seldom at a loss what to do with *his* money.

II. **Incorrect Constructions.**—The following are instances of violations of Special Rule I.:

1. When he shoots a partridge, a woodcock, or a pheasant, he gives *them* away.
2. Society is not always answerable for the conduct of *their* members.
3. Each was the centre of *their* own fair world.
   Every plant and every flower proclaims *their* Maker's praise.
   Never was either to see *their* native land again.
   Neither boy has learned *their* lesson.
   He cannot see one in prosperity without envying *them*.

SPECIAL RULE II.—**A pronoun in the plural number is used to represent—**

1. Two or more words in the singular number connected by *and*, and denoting plurality of idea.
2. A collective noun denoting plurality of idea.

I. Correct Constructions.—The following are instances of correct constructions under Special Rule II.:

1. Both Cato and Cicero loved *their* country.
2. The clergy began to withdraw *themselves.*

II. Incorrect Constructions.—The following are instances of violations of Special Rule II.:

1. Every man is entitled to liberty of conscience and freedom of opinion, if he does not pervert *it* to the injury of others.
2. The people were astonished at *its* [the people's] success.

SPECIAL RULE III.—**The relatives WHO and WHICH are generally used to introduce explanatory clauses; THAT is used only in introducing restrictive clauses.**

I. A relative is *explanatory* when it continues the idea expressed by the antecedent, adding another thought, or when it is parenthetical: thus—

1. He gave me a letter, *which* he requested me to read.
2. Words, which are signs of ideas, may be divided into eight parts of speech.

In their explanatory use, *who* and *which* introduce an additional proposition, and are equivalent to *and he*, *and she*, *and it*, *and this*, *and they* (or *these*), etc. Thus sentence 1 above is equivalent to "He gave me a letter, *and* he requested me to read *it.*" Sentence 2 is equivalent to "Words, *and these* are the signs of ideas, may," etc.

II. A relative pronoun is *restrictive* when, like an adjective, it limits the idea denoted by the antecedent: thus—

1. The army *which* conquered at Waterloo was commanded by Wellington (="The *conquering* army at Waterloo," etc.).
2. The evil *that* men do lives after them (="The evil *done* by men," etc.).

III. It is stated in Special Rule III. that the relative *that* is used restrictively only, and that *who* and *which* are *generally* used in explanatory clauses. A rigid rule *confining* the relatives *who*

and *which* to this explanatory use has sometimes been laid down.* But it does not seem possible to draw the line thus precisely, for it frequently happens that *who* or *which* is rightly used to introduce a restrictive clause. It may, however, be stated as a general directive principle that *who* and *which* are to be used in introducing explanatory clauses, and clauses not *markedly* restrictive, but that *that* is to be used in introducing a clause of emphatic restriction. In particular, *that* is to be used in preference to *who* or *which* in the following instances:

1. After an adjective in the superlative degree: as, "This is the *best that* I have seen."
2. After interrogative pronouns, and demonstrative and indefinite adjectives or pronouns: as, "*Who that* has common-sense can say so?" "*All that* he knows." "*Some* people *that* were there." "*Any* man *that* says so." "The *same that* I bought."
3. After the verb *to be* used impersonally: as, "*It was* my father *that* said so."
4. After a joint reference to persons and things: as, "The *lady* and the *lapdog that* we saw."
5. After an antecedent consisting of a noun used in an unlimited sense: as, "*Thoughts that* breathe, and *words that* burn."

SPECIAL RULE IV.—**In the position of singular pronouns of different persons, the second precedes the others, and the third precedes the first.**

Of the plural pronouns, WE has the first place, YOU the second, and THEY the third: thus—

1. *You* and *he* will go.
2. *He* and *I* will go.
3. *We* and *they* start to-morrow.

The reason of the difference in the position of the singular and of the plural pronouns is this: In the singular number, the speaker (*I*) puts himself after the person spoken to and the person spoken of, as a matter of politeness. But in the plural number, for the same reason, he puts those who are most intimately associated with him in the first place (unavoidably including himself and making "we"), then the persons spoken to, and then those spoken of.

* Especially by Bain (*English Grammar*, page 23).

SPECIAL RULE V.—**A pronoun representing words of different persons should agree with the first person rather than with the second, and with the second rather than with the third:** thus—

1. John and you and I will do *our* duty.
2. You and Mary may do the work between *you.*

Violations of Rule IX.

Case 1.—*When there is obscurity in the reference of a pronoun to its antecedent or represented word:* thus—

> *He* [Philip] wrote to that distinguished philosopher [Aristotle] in terms the most polite and flattering, begging of *him* [Aristotle] to undertake *his* [Alexander's] education, and to bestow upon *him* [Alexander] those useful lessons which *his* [Philip's] numerous avocations would not allow *him* [Philip] to bestow.—*Goldsmith.*

In this sentence it is very difficult to determine what is the noun represented by each pronoun, and this makes the entire proposition ambiguous. Hence—

Caution 1.—*There should be no obscurity in the reference of a pronoun to its antecedent or represented word.**

Case 2.—*In the use of a relative without a proper antecedent:* thus—

> Be diligent; without *which* you can never succeed.

In this sentence the only antecedent that the relative "which" can refer to is the adjective "diligent;" but from its very nature a relative can represent only a *noun*, or some equivalent of a noun.

The method of dealing with this kind of sentence is to use, in place of the relative, an abstract noun expressing the quality implied in the

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* It often happens that, in order to remove the ambiguity occasioned by pronouns of dubious reference, the only method of correction is to repeat the noun, or some expression equivalent to the noun to be represented. Thus the sentence given above may be corrected thus: "*Philip* wrote to *Aristotle* in terms the most polite and flattering, begging of *that distinguished philosopher* to undertake the education of *Alexander*, and to bestow upon *him* those useful lessons that *his own* numerous avocations would not allow *him* to bestow."

adjective. Thus, "Be diligent; for without *diligence* you cannot succeed." Hence—

Caution 2.—*Every relative pronoun should have for its antecedent a noun or its equivalent.*

Case 3.—*In the improper ellipsis of a relative:* thus—

He is still in the situation you saw him.

The relative pronoun *which*, connected by *in*, is here necessary in order to join the clause "you saw him" with the first statement. Thus, "He is still in the situation *in which* you saw him." Without this the parts of the sentence lack proper cohesion. Hence—

Caution 3.—*The relative, and the preposition governing it, should not be omitted when they are necessary to give connection to the sentence.*

NOTES ON PECULIAR AND IDIOMATIC FORMS.

I. Problem of Gender.—It is customary to use the masculine pronoun of the third person singular when reference is made to a word of indeterminate gender: thus, "Let *every one* attend to *his* own business." "A *parent* should love *his* child." A difficulty arises when we wish to represent *two* singular nouns of different *genders* taken separately: as—

If an ox gore a man or a woman so that . . . die.

To use the plural pronoun, "*they* die," violates Special Rule I.; and as in English there is no third personal pronoun singular of *common* gender, it becomes necessary in such cases to make a clumsy repetition of pronouns of corresponding genders: thus, "If an ox gore a man or a woman so that *he* or *she* die." Most writers prefer to use the plural pronoun, disregarding the principle in Special Rule I., rather than adopt this formal iteration.*

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* Cobbett (*English Grammar*) insists strongly on the repetition of the pronoun in different genders, and holds that, however disagreeable repetition may be, it is better than obscurity or inaccuracy. This point is touched in the parody on Cobbett's style in the Brothers Smith's *Rejected Addresses:* "I take it for granted that every intelligent man, woman, and child to whom I address myself has stood *severally* and *respectively* in Little Russell Street, and cast *their*, *his*, *her*, and *its* eyes on the outside of this building before they paid their money to view the inside."

II. Uses of "which."—The relative *which* may have a proposition for its antecedent: thus, "Cæsar crossed the Rubicon, *which* was in effect a declaration of war." Here "which" has for antecedent, not the noun "Rubicon," but the entire proposition "Cæsar crossed the Rubicon."

It is also to be noted that, when the antecedent is a collective noun expressing unity of idea, even though it implies persons, the relative *which*, and not *who*, is generally used. Thus, "The *family* which they considered as usurpers."

A proper name taken merely as a name, or an appellative taken in any sense not strictly personal, is represented by *which*, and not by *who*: as, "Herod—*which* is but another name for cruelty."

III. "Whose." — By some the rule has been laid down that *whose* should be employed to represent only masculine or feminine nouns; but there is no justification of this, either in etymology or in the best modern usage. In Anglo-Saxon the genitive *hwæs* was employed for the neuter as well as for the masculine and feminine. In the poets we constantly find *whose* referring to neuter nouns: thus—

1. That undiscovered country
From *whose* bourn no traveller returns.—*Shakspeare.*
2. The poor banished insects *whose* intent,
Though they did ill, was innocent.—*Shelley.*

IV. Relatives with Prepositions.—The relative *that* cannot be preceded by its governing preposition; the preposition must be placed at the end of the clause: as, "The steamboat *that* I went up the river *in* was sunk."

The prepositions governing *whom* and *which* may be placed at the end of the clause, but modern usage prefers placing them immediately *before* the relatives. Thus it is deemed more elegant to say, "The steamer *in which* I went up the river," than "The steamer *which* I went up the river *in*." In many cases a much more vigorous and effective statement is made by introducing a clause by *that*, and following it by its governing preposition, than by introducing it by *which* or *whom*, preceded by its governing preposition. Thus, "The musquito is good for nothing *that I know of*," is much less pompous than "The musquito is good for nothing *of which* I know."

V. An exception to the principle stated in Caution 2 is found in the following idiomatic construction:

> And do you now strew flowers in *his* way,
> *That* comes in triumph over Pompey's blood?—*Shakspeare.*

Here "that" has for its antecedent the possessive pronoun "his;" but the objection that "his" is a mere adjunct may be met by the statement that "his" is here equivalent to *of him*, and that *him*, implied in *his*, is the logical antecedent of the relative "that."

VI. **As and But.**—*As* is often used as a substitute for a relative pronoun, especially after *same* and *such:* thus—

1. Art thou afeard
   To be *the same* in thine own act and valor
   As thou art in desire?
2. Tears *such as* angels weep burst forth.

But is used as a relative when it follows a negative. Its force is then equivalent to *who* + *not*, or *which* + *not:* thus—

> There is *no* fireside, howsoe'er defended,
> *But* has [=which has not] one vacant chair.

EXERCISE 43.

In the following sentences correct the violations of Rule IX.

1. A civilized people has no right to violate their solemn obligations.
2. Let each esteem others better than themselves.
3. We see the beautiful variety of colors in the rainbow, and are led to consider the cause of it.
4. At home I studied geometry, that I found useful afterwards.
5. A man may see a metaphor or an allegory in a picture, as well as read them in a book.
6. This is the friend which I love.
7. Man is not such a machine as a watch or a clock, which move merely as they are moved.
8. Had the doctor been contented to take my dining-tables, as anybody in their senses would have done.
9. Not on outward charms should man or woman build their pretensions to please.
10. Each contributed what they could.
11. Those that have the Fourth Reader will bring them with them.
12. An invitation was sent to me and George.

VII. CONNECTIVE RELATION.

1. THE PREPOSITION AND ITS OBJECT.

Rule X.—1. A preposition joins a noun or pronoun to some other word.

2. A noun or pronoun depending on a preposition is in the objective case.

EXERCISE 44.

In the following sentences apply Rule X.*

1. To him who in the love of Nature holds
   Communion with her visible forms, she speaks
   A various language.—*Bryant.*
2. The eulogium pronounced on the character of the State of South Carolina, by the honorable gentleman, for her Revolutionary and other merits, meets my hearty concurrence.—*Daniel Webster.*
3. Into the jaws of death, into the mouth of hell
   Rode the Six Hundred.—*Tennyson.*
4. At midnight, in his guarded tent,
   The Turk was dreaming of the hour
   When Greece, her knee in suppliance bent,
   Should tremble at his power.—*Halleck.*
5. But now no sound of laughter was heard amongst the foes,
   A wild and wrathful clamor from all the vanguard rose.—*Macaulay.*
6. Run to your houses, fall upon your knees,
   Pray to the gods to intermit the plague
   That needs must light on this ingratitude.—*Shakspeare.*
7. The trees are now in their fullest foliage and brightest verdure; the woods are gay with the clustered flowers of the laurel; the air is perfumed by the sweetbrier and the wild rose; the meadows are enamelled with clover blossoms; while the young apple, the peach, and the plum begin to swell, and the cherry to glow among the green leaves.—*Washington Irving.*

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* **Model:** "The preposition *to* joins the pronoun *him* to the verb *speaks*; *him* is in the objective case, according to Rule X."

APPLIED SYNTAX OF RULE X.

Violations under Rule X.

Case 1.—*When the preposition is remote from the pronoun object:* as—

Who did you get that book *from?*

This sentence exemplifies a common colloquial arrangement of words; and in this type of sentence the remoteness of the object from its governing preposition renders the liability to error in the case-form very great. Hence—

Caution 1.—***When a governing preposition is remote from its pronoun object, care must be taken that the pronoun has the objective form.***

Case 2.—*When in two or more pronoun objects there is an ellipsis of a governing preposition:* as—

I lent the book to some one, I know not who.

In this sentence there is an ellipsis of the preposition *to* before *who;* but *to who* is a violation of Rule X. It should be: "I know not whom," or "I know not *to whom.*" Hence—

Caution 2.—***When there occurs an ellipsis of a governing preposition, care should be taken that the pronoun object has the objective form.***

NOTES ON PECULIAR AND IDIOMATIC FORMS.

I. **Between** and **Among.**—*Between* literally signifies *by twain*, that is, by two's. Hence it cannot apply to *more* than two. We may say, "Mother divided the apple between *sister* and *me*," but not "between *John, James, and Martha.*" The preposition *among* or *amongst* is used to denote distribution applied to more than two: as, "The booty was divided *among* the forty thieves."

II. **Appropriate Prepositions.**—There are many words that can be by but one preposition; there are other words that admit repositions, the sense greatly varying with each. **Care**

should be taken to select the preposition fitted to denote the precise relation intended to be denoted. (For this purpose reference should, in cases of doubt, be made to the dictionary.)

III. **Suppression of Object.**—The object of a preposition is sometimes suppressed: as, "We found the man [that] we were looking for."

IV. **But.**—*But* used in such a construction as "all but him" is often wrongly taken for a conjunction. The words differ in origin. *But* is an old preposition meaning literally *on the outside of*, and hence *without* or *except*. Phrases like "all *or* none but *he*" are ungrammatical. *But* may be followed by the infinitive without *to:* as, "He does nothing *but* [to] *sleep*."

EXERCISE 45.

In the following sentences correct the violations of Rule X.

1. Who did you vote for?
2. There is no one at home now besides mother, uncle, and I.
3. There were no marks to show who the sheep belonged to.
4. Let that remain a secret between you and I.
5. I bestow my favors on whoever I will.
6. Who you spend your evenings with is well known.
7. So you must ride
   On horseback after we.
8. The boy stood on the burning deck
   Whence all but he had fled.
9. The money is to be divided between the three brothers.
10. No one but he should be about the king.

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2. THE CONJUNCTION.

Rule XI.—Conjunctions connect words, phrases, or propositions: as—

1. *Oxygen* AND *hydrogen* are called gases.
2. He strove *with all his powers* AND *to a noble end.*
3. [The sun shines] BECAUSE [the sky is clear].

To the rule that conjunctions have a *connective* office there appear to be two exceptions:

1. The conjunction *that* sometimes serves merely to *introduce* a clause that is the subject of the principal statement: as, "*That* you have wronged me doth appear in this." But this is merely a case of ellipsis and inversion, the construction being equivalent to, "*It* doth appear in this *that* you have wronged me."
2. In the construction with correlative conjunctions, the *antecedent* or introductory conjunction can scarcely be said to connect, the connective force belonging to the *subsequent* conjunction. In parsing, it is proper to call the first of a pair of corresponding conjunctions an *introductory correlative conjunction.*

EXERCISE 46.

In the following sentences apply Rule XI.

1. Lightly and brightly breaks away
   The morning from her mantle gray.—*Byron.*
2. Right sharp and quick the bells all night
   Rang out from Bristol town.—*Macaulay.*
3. Men must work and women must weep,
   Though storms be hidden and waters deep.—*Kingsley.*
4. A wise man will make haste to forgive, because he knows the true value of time, and will not suffer it to pass away in unnecessary pain.—*Johnson.*
5. These wave their town flag in the arched gateway; and stand, rolling their drum; but to no purpose.—*Carlyle.*
6. For none made sweeter melody
   Than did the poor blind boy.—*Wordsworth.*
7. Whether the thing was green or blue.—*Colman.*
8. No leave ask'st thou of either wind or tide.—*Joanna Baillie.*
9. Whether he was combined
   With those of Norway; or did line the rebel
   With hidden help and vantage; or that with both
   He labor'd in his country's wrack, I know not.—*Shakspeare.*
10. This, I think, I may at least say, that we should have a great many fewer disputes in the world, if words were taken for what they are, the signs of our ideas only, and not for things themselves.—*Locke.*

APPLIED SYNTAX OF RULE XI.

Special Rules under Rule XI.

SPECIAL RULE I.—**Some conjunctions are followed by corresponding conjunctions; and in a pair of correlative conjunctions the antecedent and subsequent should correspond.**

Though requires **yet**: as—

Though deep, *yet* clear; *though* gentle, *yet* not dull.

Whether requires **or**: as—

Whether the thing was green *or* blue.

Either requires **or**; as—

None of them *either* returned his gaze *or* seemed to notice it.

Neither requires **nor**: as—

Neither in France *nor* in Spain does this custom exist.

NOTE.—*Either—or* and *neither—nor*, strictly speaking, express an *alternative*, or choice between *two;* and in modern times exact writers are careful not to employ these pairs of correlatives to unite more than two terms.

Both requires **and**: as—

Power to judge *both* quick *and* dead.

As—as is used in affirmative comparison: as—

Mine is *as* good *as* yours.

So—as is used in negative comparison: as—

But his is not *so* good *as* either;

or to express a *restrictive* comparison: as—

Be *so* good *as* to read this letter.

SPECIAL RULE II.—**When two terms, the one requiring THAN and the other AS, are connected, the terms should not be joined in such a way as to represent the double relation by only one of these conjunctions:** thus—

1. He was more beloved but not so much admired *as* Cynthio.

In this sentence the two terms "more beloved" and "so much admired" are connected, and the double correlation of terms is represented by the conjunction *as.* But a comparative, as "more beloved," requires to be followed by *than* (for we cannot say "more beloved *as*

Cynthio"), and the construction in such cases must be changed so as to introduce the appropriate conjunction. Thus—

He was more beloved than Cynthio, but not *so* much admired.

2. I would do *as* much or more work *than* John.

Incorrect: the conjunction *than* is made to represent the correlative both of "as much" and of "more;" but "as much" requires to be followed by the conjunction *as*. Correct as follows:

I would do *as* much work *as* John, or more [than he].

Special Rule III.—**Care should be taken to employ a conjunction fitted to express the connection intended.**

I. *That* should be used in place of *lest*, *but*, *but what*, *but that*, after expressions implying *doubt*, *fear*, or *denial:* as—

I do not doubt *that* [not *but that* or *but what*] he is honest.

II. After *else*, *other*, *rather*, and all comparatives, the latter term of comparison should be introduced by *than*, not by *but*, *besides*, or *except:* as—

He no sooner retires *but* [should be *than*] his heart burns with devotion.

III. *Than* is often improperly used for a preposition: as—

1. That is a very different statement *than* what [should be *from what*] you made yesterday.
2. I should prefer being right *than* being President [should be *to being*].

NOTES ON PECULIAR AND IDIOMATIC FORMS.

I. **Rhetoric of Conjunctions.**—The omission of the conjunction frequently imparts energy to the narrative: thus—

Through many a dark and dreary vale
They passed, and many a region dolorous;
O'er many a frozen, many a fiery Alp,
Rocks, caves, lakes, fens, bogs, dens, and shades of death—
A universe of death.—Milton.

On the other hand, the rhetorical repetition of the conjunction serves to emphasize details: thus—

Seasons return; but not to me returns
Day, *or* the sweet approach of even *or* morn,
Or sight of vernal bloom, *or* summer's rose,
Or flock, *or* herds, *or* human face divine.—*Milton.*

And—and is often used in poetry for *both—and*, *or—or* for *either—or*, and *nor—nor* for *neither—nor*: thus—

1. *And* trump *and* timbrel answered them.—*Scott.*
2. I whom *nor* avarice *nor* pleasures move.—*Walsh.*

II. Than—"than whom."—The *case* of a noun or pronoun following *than* depends on the construction of the subsequent clause (which, however, is generally elliptical): thus—

1. I esteem you more than *they* [esteem you].
2. I esteem you more than *them* [=than I esteem them].

A peculiar construction, *than whom*, is exemplified in the following:

1. Beelzebub, *than whom*,
   Satan except, none higher sat.—*Milton.*
2. Pope, *than whom* few men had more vanity.—*Johnson.*

If we substitute the personal pronoun, we shall see that the nominative case is required. Thus: "None sat higher than *he*;" "had more vanity than *he*." This construction must therefore be regarded as anomalous; but it has been used by so many reputable authors that we can scarcely refuse to accept it. It is probably the result of confounding the English idiom with the Latin comparative followed by the ablative *quo*. "In Latin *quo* means *than who*, and *than* is expressed by the ablative. Classical scholars writing in English have supplied *than*, and yet, with the Latin syntax in their minds, have retained the oblique (objective) case."*

EXERCISE 47.

In the following sentences correct the violations of Rule XI.

1. Neither despise or oppose what you do not understand.
2. He is more bold but not so wise as his companion.
3. Will it be urged that the four Gospels are as old or even older than tradition?
4. As far as I am able to judge, the book is well written.
5. Sincerity is as valuable, and even more so, as knowledge.

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* Rushton, *Rules and Cautions*, p. 104. Dr. Priestley seems to have had a notion that *than* is in such cases a preposition, and Mr. Abbott (*English Grammar*, p. 210) says it was perhaps regarded as a quasi-preposition. But this is no help in the explanation of the construction, which, indeed, is idiomatic.

6. These rules should be kept in mind as aids either for speaking, composing, or parsing correctly.
7. No one gave his opinion so modestly as he.
8. I do not deny but he has merit.
9. We expected something more besides this.
10. Was the singing any different to-night than usual?

VIII. ABSOLUTE AND INDEPENDENT CONSTRUCTIONS.

NOMINATIVE ABSOLUTE—INDEPENDENT—INTERJECTION.

Rule XII.—1. A noun or pronoun whose case depends on no other word is put in the nominative absolute. 2. The nominative independent and the interjection have no grammatical relation to the other parts of the sentence.

I. **Absolute Construction.**—In the absolute construction the noun or pronoun is always joined with a participle, the two forming a phrase: thus—

1. *Spring returning*, the swallows reappear.
2. *They being unprepared*, we began the attack.

This construction is called absolute, because the noun or pronoun is loosed or absolved from grammatical dependence on any other words in the sentence. The absolute construction in Anglo-Saxon was the dative,* and we find this construction in authors as late as Milton: thus—

> And *him destroyed*
> For whom all this was made, all this will soon
> Follow.—*Paradise Lost.*

"Him" is here not an objective, but a real *dative*. The loss of case-inflections has led to the confounding of the cases, and modern usage requires the nominative case in this construction.

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* In Latin the *ablative*, in Greek the *genitive*.

EXERCISE 48.

In the following sentences apply Rule XII.

1. The president having given his assent, the bill became a law.
2. Those barbarous ages past, succeeded next the birthday of invention.
3. Then shall I be no more;
   And Adam, wedded to another Eve,
   Shall live with her enjoying; I [being] extinct.
4. Success being now hopeless, preparations were made for retreat.
5. Thou looking on,
   Shamed to be overcome or overreached
   Would utmost vigor raise.

II. Independent Construction.—Under the independent construction occur the following cases:

1. When, by *direct address*, a noun is put in the second person, and set off from the verb by a comma: as—

   Horatius, saith the consul,
   As thou sayest, so let it be.

2. When, *by pleonasm*, it is introduced abruptly for emphasis: as—

   The *boy*, oh! where was he?

3. When, *by exclamation* (one of the figures of rhetoric), a word is employed in the manner of an interjection: as—

   Oh! deep enchanting *prelude* to repose!

EXERCISE 49.

In the following sentences apply Rule XII.

1. Awake, my St John, leave all meaner things.—*Pope*.
2. O the depth of the riches both of the wisdom and knowledge of God.—*Bible*.
3. A horse! a horse! my kingdom for a horse!—*Shakspeare*.
4. Plato, thou reasonest well.—*Addison*.
5. O thou that with surpassing glory crowned,
   Look'st from thy sole dominion, like the God
   Of this new world.
   O sun! to tell thee how I hate thy beams.—*Milton*.
6. The gallant king, he skirted still
   The margin of that mighty hill.—*Scott*.

The Interjection.—The interjection is to be parsed as "having no grammatical relation to the other parts of the sentence."

The term *interjection* (*inter*, between, and *jacere*, to cast or throw) signifies something that is *thrown in among* things of which it does not naturally form a constituent part; that is to say, among the words of a sentence. Speech is the expression of *thought*, but an interjection is the expression of feeling: so that it is not, strictly speaking, a *part of speech*.* Indeed, in place of being a *part* of a sentence, it is itself an entire though unanalyzed utterance of emotion, and expresses in its own way what it would require a whole sentence to state—provided this statement were possible.

Below will be found a few illustrations of the use of interjections. †

1. *Ah!* then and there was hurrying to and fro.
2. *Alas!* both for the deed and for the cause.
3. *Alack!* when once we have our grace forgot, nothing goes right.
4. They opened their mouth wide against me, and said: "*Aha! aha!*"
5. *Fy!* my lord, *fy!* a soldier, and afraid!
6. *Ha!* laugh'st thou, Lochiel, my vision to scorn?
7. "*Ho!* shifts she thus?" King Henry cried.
8. *Hush! hark!* a deep sound strikes like a rising knell.
9. *O* Nature, how in every charm supreme!
10. But she is in her grave—and *oh*
    The difference to me!‡

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* "Almost all animals have some peculiar sound to explain any sudden feeling they experience. The interjection is such a sound, as employed by man."—Morrell's *Grammar.*

† The following etymologies of a few common interjections may be of interest:

Alas! *ah lesso*=O [me] miserable.
Adieu, *à Dieu*=[I commend you] to God.
Good-bye, *God b' wi' ye*=God be with you.
O dear, *O Dieu*=O God.
Amen, a Hebrew adverb signifying *verily*, *truly*, *yea*.

‡ The last two examples illustrate a distinction which should be observed in writing the interjection *O* or *Oh*. *O* is merely the sign of the "nominative independent" (vocative), whereas *oh* conveys a particular sentiment, as of appeal, grief, etc.

IX. SYNTAX OF VERBS AND VERBALS.

I. The Infinitive.

Rule I.—The infinitive depends upon a noun, a verb, or an adjective, and takes the same complements and modifiers as the verb.

I. An infinitive may always be disposed of by one of the XII. Rules of Syntax, or by one of the Special Rules. But as it is often difficult to determine the construction of this verbal, the rule above given may be used instead of that which more directly applies.

II. *To*, of the infinitive, is generally omitted after the verbs *bid*, *dare*, *need*, *make*, *see*, *hear*, *feel*, *let*, in the active voice: as, "Bid him *go*;" "I hear thee *speak* of the better land;" "I dare *do* all that may become a man."

III. The infinitive is sometimes *absolute:* as, "*To tell* you the truth, I do not like him;" "Marley was dead, *to begin* with."

II. The Gerund.

Rule II.—The gerund has the construction of the noun with the complements and modifications of the verb.

I. The noun construction of the gerund is exemplified in its use as subject or object of a verb, in its dependence on a preposition, and in its taking a possessive: as—

1. *Reading* is profitable.
2. Bees are skilful *in building.*
3. *His* [or *John's*] *making* money is no proof of merit.

II. The verb construction of the gerund is exemplified in the fact that it may take an object or other complement, and may receive an adverbial modifier: as—

1. Bees are skilful *in building their hives.*
2. On *growing old*, he became avaricious.
3. *Reading daily* is profitable.

III. The Participle.

Rule III.—The participle has the construction of the adjective, with the complement and modifications of the verb: as—

1. What man, *seeing this*, does not blush?

The participle "seeing" has here the construction of the adjective (it modifies "man"), while it takes as object "this," a pronoun in the objective case.

2. Verse, in the finest mould of fancy *cast*,
Was lumber in an age so void of taste.

The participle "cast," as an adjective, modifies the noun "verse," and is modified by the phrase "in the finest mould of fancy."

NOTE.—In such sentences as, "He was wonderfully active, *considering his age;*" "Granting what you say, does it answer any argument?"—sentences in which the adjective relation is not apparent—the participle may be said to be used independently, or *absolutely*.

IV. Subjunctive Mood.

Rule IV.—The subjunctive mood is used in a subordinate proposition when both contingency and futurity are expressed, or when the contrary fact is implied: as—

1. If he *continue* to study, he will improve.
2. If he *were* guilty [as he is *not*], he would suffer.

I. But when a condition is assumed as real the statement is made by means of the indicative: as—

1. If he *has* money [as it is assumed he has], he keeps it.
2. If he *is* guilty [as he probably is], he will suffer.

II. A good practical rule with respect to the use of the subjunctive is that it is to be employed *whenever a potential or a future auxiliary is implied:* thus—

1. Though he [*may*] *slay* me, I will trust in him.
2. Go thy way lest a worse fate [*should*] *befall* thee.
3. If it *were* [*should be*] done, when 'tis done, then '*twere* [*would be*] well
It *were* [*should be*] done quickly.

III. The choice between the indicative and the subjunctive mood has long been a matter of considerable difficulty. The tendency of modern usage is to disregard the niceties discovered or imagined by grammarians regarding the employment of the subjunctive, and it is probable that this form will in time disappear from our language.

V. "Shall" and "Will."

Rule V.—The correct use of the auxiliaries *shall* and *will* depends fundamentally upon the following principle:

WILL *expresses the will or pleasure of its own* SUBJECT; SHALL *subordinates the will of its subject to that of the* SPEAKER.

I. Usage, however, has modified the application of this principle as follows:

1. In the first person—where the *subject* is also the *speaker*—*will* is used to express determination; *shall*, to express simple futurity.
2. In the second and third persons, the speaker asserts his will when he uses *shall*, and waives his will when he uses *will:* as, "You (or he) *shall*"=it is *my* will that you (or he) shall: "You (or he) *will*," leaves it to *your* (or *his*) will; or simply indicates futurity.
3. *Shall* is also used when the event is beyond the control both of subject and of speaker: as—

   The Lord *will* come; the earth *shall* quake.

4. In questions, when the "will" of the person interrogated is appealed to, *will* can be used properly in the second person only: thus, "*Shall* I (he)?"=Is it *your* will that I (he) shall? "*Will* you?"=Is it *your* will?
5. When the opinion merely of the person addressed is asked, *will* may be used in the first and third persons, and *shall* in the second; thus, "Which *will* I (he) choose?" =Which do you *think* I intend (he intends) to choose? "*Shall* you be elected?" =Do you *think* that you shall be elected?

II. The same rules apply to *should* and *would* both in the conditional and in the subjunctive mood.*

NOTE.—It is almost impossible to reduce to rules the niceties of usage in *shall* and *will*, *should* and *would;* and in fact the fewer rules on this subject the better, since those to whom English is the mother-tongue, and who have not been corrupted by provincialisms, acquire an instinct that is the best guide in the employment of these subtle auxiliaries.†

VI. Use of Tense-Forms.

Rule VI.—The following principles regarding the use of tenses are to be carefully observed:

I. When a verb, taking an infinitive as complement, refers to a *future* act or circumstance, the present, not the perfect, infinitive should be used: thus—

1. I intended *to write* you last week [not *to have written* you].
2. I expected *to go* to Europe [not *to have gone*].

Though the verbs "intended" and "expected" are in the past tense, yet the reference is to a *future* time as regards what was *intended* and *expected.*

II. But when a verb, taking an infinitive as complement, refers to a past act or circumstance, the perfect, not the present, infinitive should be used: thus—

He appeared *to have seen* better days.

III. When two or more compound tenses of the same verb are connected, such parts of the tense-forms as are not common to all must be inserted: thus—

This elucidation may serve for almost any book that *has*, *is*, or *shall be published.—Bolingbroke.*

"Published," the past participle of the verb *publish*, is correctly used with "shall be;" its ellipsis with "is" is proper; but the ellipsis with "has" is improper, because the writer intended to say has *been* published, using the present perfect tense, *passive voice.*

IV. The past tense should not be employed in forming the compound tenses, nor should the past participle be used for the past tense. Thus: say, "to have *gone*"—not "to have *went;*" "I *did* it"—not "I *done* it."

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* Dalgleish: *English Grammar.*

† Sir Edmund Head has devoted to this subject an entire volume, entitled "*Shall*" *and* "*Will.*"

MISCELLANEOUS EXAMPLES

OF IMPROPRIETIES IN SYNTAX FOR CORRECTION.

I.

1. This exercise is very easy done.
2. How many square feet is there in a floor twenty feet long and sixteen feet wide?
3. In France cheap wood is made to perfectly imitate mahogany.
4. The great historian and the essayist is no more.
5. It could not have been her.
6. Did you see the man and the dog which passed this way?
7. I intend to immediately retire from business.
8. I think I will return home next week.
9. The death was announced lately of the great statesman.
10. Who are you looking for?
11. The collection of books that have come down to us from that period are very valuable.
12. I expected to have been at home when you called.
13. It was him and me that were chosen to go.
14. When will we three meet again?
15. He not only ought, but must succeed.
16. I never saw it rain so heavy before.
17. His work is one of the best that has ever appeared.
18. It has been said that politics are but little more than common-sense.
19. Metal types were now introduced, which before this time had been made of wood.
20. No man ever bestowed such a gift to his kind.

II.

1. Each strives to get ahead of the other in their own little craft.
2. Her father and her rode about the country.
3. I would like to know whose hat this is.
4. Of what gender are each of the following nouns?
5. He now began his work in earnest.
6. One of the greatest evils which now oppresses France is the want of a high moral tone among her people.
7. If he plunge into the sea, he feels the law that defies the boundaries of his perfect liberty.
8. I meant to have written to you last Friday.
9. Who did you say you met this morning?
10. They have neither occasion for beauty, money, or good conduct.
11. This is one of the most memorable battles that ever have or will be fought.
12. I trust you shall overlook the circumstance of me having come to school late.

13. What is the difference between an adjective and participle?
14. These flowers smell very sweetly and look beautifully.
15. Have you no other book but this?
16. He is only fitted to govern others who can govern himself.
17. The spirit, and not the letter, of the law are what we ought to follow.
18. The man could neither read or write.
19. The Book of Psalms were written by David.
20. That building must be either a church or school.

III.

1. The two are here compared with one another.
2. It has taken man thousands of years to in part discover the laws of nature.
3. This we will have occasion to see illustrated hereafter.
4. Mary, for all her anxious words, was not so sure as me.
5. The past has now began to renew its quaint existence.
6. Our words would look very oddly to us in a phonetic dress.
7. Such a club has other merits besides those that are intellectual.
8. I can read as well as her, but she sings better than me.
9. This incident, though it appears improbable, yet I cannot doubt the author's veracity.
10. I had the physician, the surgeon, and the apothecary's assistance.
11. It was Peter the Hermit, him that incited the crusade.
12. Here come my old friend and teacher.
13. The minute finger and the hour hand has each its particular use.
14. Which of that group of men is the taller?
15. What boy amongst us can foretell their future career?
16. An account of the great events in all parts of the world are given in the daily papers.
17. If I were in his position, I would not have gone.
18. They would neither eat themselves nor suffer nobody else to eat.
19. Did you expect to have heard so poor a speech?
20. I cannot give you no more money.

IV.

1. We did no more but what we ought to.
2. We have done no more than it was our duty to have done.
3. He is a man of remarkable clear intellect.
4. He showed me two kinds, but I did not buy any of them.
5. Every one is the best judge of their own conscience.
6. They told me of him having failed.
7. He has already, and will continue to receive many honors.
8. One species of bread of coarse quality was only allowed to be baked.
9. The party whom he invited was very numerous.
10. The doctor said in his lecture that fever always produced thirst.
11. The *Annals of Florence* are a most imposing work.

12. Such expressions sound harshly.
13. What can be the cause of the Parliament neglecting so important a business?
14. Either you or I are in the way.
15. He would not be persuaded but what I was greatly in fault.
16. I do not think that leisure of life and tranquillity of mind, which fortune and your own wisdom has given you, could be better employed.
17. The fact of me being a stranger to him does not justify his conduct.
18. Let me awake the King of Morven, he that is like the sun of heaven rising in a storm.
19. The nation was ruined by the profligacy of their nobles.
20. Ruth and I, and you too, must answer for yourselves.

V.

1. Either the young man or his guardian have acted improperly.
2. The following treatise, together with those that accompany it, were written many years ago.
3. A talent of this kind would prove the likeliest of any other to succeed.
4. On your conduct at this moment depends the color and complexion of their destiny.
5. That is either a man or a woman's voice.
6. Man, though he has great variety of thoughts, yet they are all within his own breast.
7. The ebb and flow of the tides were explained by Newton.
8. And indeed in some cases we derive as much or more pleasure from that source than from anything else.
9. The number of inhabitants were not more than four millions.
10. The logical and historical analysis of a language generally in some degree coincides.
11. But she fell a-laughing like one out of their right mind.
12. Verse and prose run into one another like light and shade.
13. Homer had the greatest invention of any writer whatever.
14. Of all the other qualities of style, clearness is the most important.
15. Gold is heavier and more valuable than any metal.
16. In him were happily blended true dignity with softness of manners.
17. The saint, the father, and the husband pray.
18. These verses were written by a young man who has long lain in his grave, for his own amusement.
19. The Atlantic Ocean separates the eastern and western continent.
20. A second deluge learning thus o'errun,
    And the monks finished what the Goths begun.

SECTION III.

ANALYSIS.

CHAPTER I.

DEFINITIONS AND PRINCIPLES.

I. The Sentence and its Elements.

202. Analysis is the separation of a sentence into its constituent elements.

For the distinction between analysis and syntax, and for the view that both form parts of the Doctrine of the Sentence, see p. 139.

203. A sentence is a combination of words expressing a complete thought: thus—

1. The proper study of mankind is man.
2. I hear thee speak of the better land.

I. A sentence is the *formal* statement of a thought. An interjection may, *in substance*, express a thought, but it does not do so *in form*, and hence it does not constitute a sentence.

II. By "expressing a complete thought" is meant that—(1) something *is said*, (2) *about something*.

204. The **elements** of a sentence are its constituent parts. They may be considered with reference to their *rank*, their *structure*, and their *office*.

I. **By Rank.**

205. With reference to rank, the elements of a sentence are classed as—I. Principal elements. II. Subordinate elements. III. Independent.

206. Principal or essential elements are the words necessary for the expression of a thought.

207. Subordinate elements are words joined with the principal elements for the purpose of expressing some modification of the thought.

208. The principal elements of a sentence are: I. THE SUBJECT. II. THE PREDICATE.

209. The **subject** represents that of which something is stated.

210. The **predicate** tells what is stated of the subject: thus—

SUBJECT.	PREDICATE.
1. Birds	sing
2. *Some* birds	sing
3. *Some* birds	sing *sweetly*
4. *Some* birds *of this country*	sing *sweetly during the day*

211. Adjuncts.—The subordinate elements of a sentence are called *adjuncts*, or *modifiers*.

I. When adjuncts are added to a subject or to a predicate, the subject or the predicate is said to be *modified* or *enlarged;* and the terms *modification* or *enlargement* of the subject or of the predicate may be used as synonymous with *adjunct*, or *modifier*, of the subject, etc.

II. "Some" in 2 and 3 above, and "some" and "of this country" in 4, are *adjuncts*, or *modifiers*, or *enlargements*, of the subject. "Sweetly" in 3, and "sweetly" and "during the day" in 4, are *adjuncts*, etc., of the predicate.

212. The **simple** or *grammatical* **subject** is the subject without adjuncts: as, "*Birds* fly swiftly."

213. The **complete** or *logical* **subject** is the subject with its adjuncts: as, "The proper study of mankind is man."

LOGICAL SUBJECT.		LOGICAL PREDICATE.
Grammatical Subject.	Adjuncts of Subject.	
study	The proper of mankind	is man.

214. The **simple** or *grammatical* **predicate** is the verb-word or verb-phrase used in making the assertion: as—

1. Birds *fly*.
2. Birds *may have flown*.

215. The **complete** or *logical* **predicate** is the predicate-verb with all that is attached to it—*complement* or *adjuncts*, or *both:* thus—

LOGICAL PREDICATE.

[simple pred.] [adjunct] [complement] [adjunct]
Night STRETCHES (1) *forth* (2) *her sceptre* (3) *o'er a prostrate world.*

The important distinction between the *complement* of a predicate (which, in the case of all incomplete verbs, is essential to predication) and a mere *modifier* should be carefully noted. In this view it may be convenient to employ the term *complex* predicate to designate the predicate-verb together with the complement, and *logical* predicate to designate the verb with its complement and modifiers.

216. Independent Elements.—Independent elements are words or phrases not related to the other parts of the sentence; that is, they are neither principal nor subordinate elements: as—

1. *To say the least*, it was very surprising.
2. *Mary*, your lilies are in bloom.
3. *Well*, it is now too late.

Connectives are conjunctions, relative pronouns, and conjunctive adverbs.

II. **By Structure.**

217. With reference to their structure the elements of a sentence are classified as: I. Words. II. Phrases. III. Propositions (including *clauses*).

218. A **phrase** is a combination of related words forming an element of a sentence, and equivalent to a noun, an adjective, or an adverb.

A phrase may be introduced by—

1. A *preposition*, thus forming a prepositional phrase: as—

1. Darius retreated *into Persia.*
2. The fruit *of that forbidden tree.*

2. An *infinitive*, thus forming an infinitive phrase: as—

To love our neighbors as ourselves is a divine command.

3. A *participle*, thus forming a participial phrase: as—

1. *Having crossed the Rubicon*, Cæsar's army advanced on Rome.
2. Children, *coming home from school*, look in at the open door.

219. A **proposition** is the combination of a subject with a predicate, forming either an independent or a dependent statement: thus—

1. Life is but an empty dream.
2. Tell me not *that life is but an empty dream.*

A proposition forming an independent, or principal, statement is a *simple sentence.*

220. A **clause** is a dependent, or subordinate, proposition, introduced by a connective: thus—

1. *Whilst light and colors rise and fly,*
2. Lives Newton's deathless memory.

From the definitions of a proposition and of a clause, it will be inferred that while a sentence is always a proposition, a proposition is not necessarily always a sentence: for a clause or dependent proposition is not a sentence, but an *element* of a sentence.

221. A word is termed an element of the *first degree;* a phrase, an element of the *second degree;* and a clause, an element of the *third degree.*

III. By Office.

222. —With reference to their office, the elements of a sentence are classified as: I. SUBSTANTIVE. II. ADJECTIVE. III. ADVERBIAL.

223. A **substantive** word, phrase, or clause is a word, phrase, or clause used as a noun; an **adjective** word, phrase, or clause is one used as an adjective; an **adverbial** word, phrase, or clause is one used as an adverb.

If the element is a *word*, its classification as a part of speech determines its office; if a *phrase* or *clause*, the test is: What part of speech would this be if the idea were expressed by a single word?

SUMMARY.

The elements classed by **rank** are......... { Principal, Subordinate, Independent.

The elements classed by **structure** are... { Words, Phrases, Propositions.

The elements classed by **office** are......... { Substantive, Adjective, Adverbial.

EXERCISE 50.

A.

In the following sentences select the grammatical and the logical subjects, and the grammatical and the logical predicates.

1. A thing of beauty is a joy forever.
2. Chaucer, the father of English poetry, wrote the Canterbury Tales.
3. Brave soldiers fell at Thermopylæ.
4. Tennyson wrote the Idylls of the King.
5. Nothing in his life became him like the leaving it.
6. All the land, in flowery squares, beneath a broad and equal-blowing wind, smelt of the coming summer.
7. The morn, in russet mantle clad,
Walks o'er the dew of yon high eastern hill.
8. Short-lived likings may be bred
By a glance from fickle eyes.
9. Under her torn hat glowed the wealth
Of simple beauty and rustic health.
10. Night, sable goddess, from her ebon throne,
In rayless majesty now stretches forth
Her leaden sceptre o'er a prostrate world.

B.

In the following distinguish phrases and clauses from sentences.

1. To die is gain. 2. Not to know me. 3. The design has never been completed. 4. A design which has never been completed. 5. Sailing to Europe in a steamer. 6. The morn, in russet mantle clad. 7. From bad to worse. 8. Snow-drifts. 9. When morning showed the snow-drifts. 10. For conscience' sake. 11. Alas! poor Yorick. 12. When I knew him, Horatio. 13. Remote from towns. 14. Go. 15. Gone from our gaze. 16. Does it matter? 17. No. 18. Into the jaws of death. 19. Rode the Six Hundred. 20. Perish the thought!

II. Classes of Sentences.

224. How Classified.—Sentences are classified (1) according to their *use;* (2) according to their *structure.*

I. By Use.

225. According to their use, sentences are divided into four classes: I. Declarative. II. Interrogative. III. Imperative. IV. Exclamative (or Exclamatory).

226. A **declarative** sentence is one that expresses an assertion (that is, an affirmation or a negation): as—

1. Man is mortal.
2. Into the jaws of death rode the Six Hundred.
3. If it were so, it were a grievous fault.

227. An **interrogative** sentence is one that expresses a question: as—

1. Is man mortal?
2. Did the Six Hundred ride into the jaws of death?

228. An **imperative** sentence is one that expresses a command or an entreaty: as—

1. Come when the heart beats high and warm.
2. Put money in thy purse.

229. An **exclamative** (or exclamatory) sentence is one that expresses a thought in an interjectional manner: as—

Oh! that this too, too solid flesh would melt!

The following passage from a well-known speech of Patrick Henry affords an admirable illustration of the several kinds of sentence as classified by use:

"They tell us, sir, that we are weak—unable to cope with so formidable an adversary. But when shall we be stronger? Will it be the next week, or the next year? Shall we gather strength by irresolution and inaction? Sir, we are not weak, if we make a proper use of those means which the God of nature hath placed in our power. The battle, sir, is not to the strong alone: it is to the vigilant, the active, the brave. If we were base enough to desire it, it is now too late to retire from the contest. The war is inevitable—and let it come. Our brethren are already in the field. Why stand we here idle? Is life so dear,

or peace so sweet, as to be purchased at the price of chains and slavery? Forbid it, Almighty God! I know not what course others may take; but as for me, give me liberty, or give me death!"

II. **By Structure.**

230. According to their structure sentences are classified as: I. SIMPLE. II. COMPLEX. III. COMPOUND.

231. A **simple** sentence consists of one independent proposition.

It must not be supposed that a simple sentence necessarily consists of only a few words. No matter how many modifications of the subject, or of the predicate, or of both, there may be, if a sentence contains but one subject and one predicate, it is a simple sentence. "Birds fly" is a simple sentence containing two words. The following is also a simple sentence, though containing sixty-one words:

"About fourscore years ago there *used* to be seen sauntering on the pleasant terraces of Sans Souci, for a short time in the afternoon, or driving in a rapid, business manner on the open roads, or through the scraggy woods and avenues of that intricate, amphibious Potsdam region, a highly interesting, lean, little old *man*, of alert, though slightly stooping figure." *

232. A **complex** sentence consists of one independent (or principal) proposition and one or more clauses; thus—

1. *When morning dawned* [clause] ALL FEARS WERE DISPELLED [principal proposition].
2. WE KNOW NOT [principal proposition] *whence it comes* [clause] or *whither it goes* [clause].

233. A **compound** sentence consists of two or more independent propositions: thus—

[All fears were dispelled], AND [we saw the land within a few leagues of us].

In compound sentences the members are merely *put together* (*con* and *ponere*), while in complex sentences they are *woven together* (*con* and *plectere*).

* Carlyle: *Frederick the Great.*

III. Subject and Predicate.

234. The **subject** of a sentence is always a noun or one of its equivalents.

The equivalents of a noun are—

1. A *pronoun:* as—

   She is all the world to me.

2. An *adjective* used substantively: as—

   The *weary* are at rest.

3. An *infinitive* or a *gerund:* as—

   1. *To be* contents his natural desire.
   2. *Seeing* is believing.

4. A substantive *phrase:* as—

   1. *Not to know me* argues yourself unknown.
   2. *Learning a language well* is difficult.

5. A substantive *clause:* as—

   That the earth is spherical was not known by the Greeks.

235. The **predicate** consists of a predicate verb (word or words); but in order to make a significant statement it is often necessary to employ a *complement.*

236. Complements.—Transitive verbs require an *object* as complement: as—

Columbus *discovered* [pred. verb] *America* [object].

The object of a transitive verb may be any of the equivalents of the noun: thus—

1. We commend *her.*
2. Men honor *the brave.*
3. Boys like *to skate.*
4. They stopped *reciting their lessons.*
5. Talleyrand said *that the purpose of language is to conceal thought.*

237. Incomplete intransitive and passive verbs may take as a complement a *predicate nominative* or a *predicate adjective:* as—

1. Knowledge is *power.*
2. The mountains are *high.*
3. She seems *better.*
4. Socrates was thought *wise.*

The complement of an intransitive or a passive verb may be one of the equivalents of the noun or of the adjective: thus—

1. His intention was *to go.*
2. The probability is *that he has gone to Europe.*
3. That book seems *of little value.*

238. Certain transitive verbs (see Syntax, p. 168), take a double object, one *direct* and the other *attributive;* or they may take, in addition to the direct object, an adjective complement modifying the object: as—

1. We call the *boy John.*
2. We hold the *man accountable.*

IV. Adjuncts of the Subject and Predicate.

239. Of the Subject.—Since the subject is always a noun or its equivalent, and since whatever words modify a noun are adjective in office, the adjuncts of the subject must be *adjective* elements.

240. An adjunct of the subject may be an adjective element of the first, the second, or the third degree: that is, it may be an adjective *word, phrase,* or *clause.*

I. As a word an adjective element may be—

1. An *adjective:* as—

Kind hearts are more than coronets.

2. An *appositive* noun: as—

Newton, *the philosopher*, discovered the law of gravitation.

3. A *possessive* noun: as—

Children's voices should be dear to a mother's ear.

II. An adjective phrase may be in form prepositional or participial: thus—

1. The thirst *for fame* is an infirmity of noble minds.
2. The man, *being injured by the fall*, was taken to the hospital.

III. An adjective clause is always introduced by a relative pronoun or a relative adverb: thus—

The man *that hath no music in himself* is fit for stratagems.
The place *where Moses was buried* is unknown.

241. The subject may be modified not only by *one*, but by any combination or number of combinations of adjective elements: thus—

Born to inherit the most illustrious monarchy that the world ever saw, and early united to the object of her choice, the amiable PRINCESS, *happy in herself, and joyful in her future prospects*, little anticipated the fate which was so soon to overtake her.

242. Adjective elements are used to modify not only the subject, but a noun in any part of a sentence.

If the subject is an infinitive or a gerund, it may in its *verb*-character take a complement or adverbial adjuncts, or both: as—

1. To love one's *enemies* is a Christian duty.
2. Playing *with fire* is dangerous.

243. Of the Predicate.—The predicate verb is modified by *adverbial* elements.

244. An adverbial element may be an element of the first, second, or third degree.

I. As a word, an adverbial element may be—

1. An *adverb:* as—

Leonidas died *bravely.*

2. An *indirect object:* as—

1. Give the *man* a seat.
2. Give *him* a seat.

3. An *objective adverbial:* as—

1. Our friends have returned *home.*
2. The book cost *three* dollars.

4. An *infinitive of purpose:* as—

She stoops to *conquer.*

II. An adverbial phrase may be in form prepositional or participial: thus—

1. Leonidas died *with great bravery.*
2. He reads *standing at his desk.*

III. An adverbial clause is always introduced by a conjunctive adverb or a subordinate conjunction: thus—

1. The lawyers smiled that afternoon
   When he hummed in court an old love-tune.
2. Fishes have no voice *because they have no lungs.*

245. The predicate verb may be modified by any combination or number of combinations of adverbial elements; and an adverbial element may serve as an adjunct, not only of a verb, but of an adjective or an adverb.

From what has been stated, it will be correctly inferred that a *noun complement* may receive any of the modifications of the noun, while an *adjective complement* may take as adjunct an adverbial element of any degree.

CHAPTER II.

ANALYSIS OF THE SIMPLE SENTENCE.

I. Theory of the Simple Sentence.

246. The **simple sentence** consists of a single proposition, and hence can contain but one finite verb.

247. The **simple subject** of the simple sentence consists of a substantive element of the first or second degree; that is, of a word or phrase equivalent to a noun.

248. Its modifications.—The simple subject may be modified (or enlarged) by any adjective element of the first or second degree, or by any combination of adjective elements of those degrees.

249. The **simple predicate** of the simple sentence always consists of some finite verb, either with or without a complement.

250. Its modifications.—The simple predicate may be modified by any adverbial element of the first or second degree, or by any combination of adverbial elements of those degrees.

II. Directions for Analysis.

In analyzing a simple sentence—I. State the nature of the sentence (1) by *structure*; (2) by *use*.

II. Designate—

1. The grammatical subject.
2. The grammatical predicate (that is, the predicate verb).
3. The modifications of the subject.
4. The complement, when the verb is incomplete.
5. The modifications, and the complement (if any) of the complement.
6. The modifications of the grammatical predicate.
7. The logical predicate.

When the grammatical subject or predicate has no adjuncts, it may be stated that "the subject (or predicate), grammatical and logical, is—"

NOTES ON ANALYSIS.

I. The order of a sentence may be *direct* or *inverted;* and in resolving a sentence—that is, in showing the elements that enter into its construction—it is proper to reduce it from the inverted to the direct form: thus—

Inverted. Now fades the glimmering landscape on the sight.
Direct. { The glimmering landscape fades on the sight now; or, The glimmering landscape now fades on the sight.
Inverted. Thee the voice, the dance obey.
Direct. The voice, the dance obey thee.
Inverted. Slow melting strains their queen's approach declare.
Direct. Slow melting strains declare their queen's approach.

II. In written analysis it will be found convenient to employ the following method of designating the degree of an element:

s' = substantive *word:* i. e., substantive element *first* degree.
s'' = substantive *phrase:* i. e., substantive element *second* degree.
s''' = substantive *clause:* i. e., substantive element *third* degree.
a' = adjective *word:* i. e., adjective element *first* degree.
a'' = adjective *phrase:* i. e., adjective element *second* degree.
a''' = adjective *clause:* i. e., adjective element *third* degree.
adv.' = adverbial *word:* i. e., adverbial element *first* degree.
adv.'' = adverbial *phrase:* i. e., adverbial element *second* degree.
adv.''' = adverbial *clause:* i. e., adverbial element *third* degree.

Models for Oral Analysis.

1. *The hardy Laplander, clad in skins, boldly defies the severity of his arctic climate.*

This is a simple declarative sentence. The grammatical subject is "Laplander;" the grammatical predicate, "defies."

The grammatical subject is modified [or, *enlarged*] by "the" and "hardy," adjective words [or, *adjective elements of the first degree*], and by "clad in skins," an adjective phrase [or, *adjective element of the second degree*]—thus forming the logical subject, "the hardy Laplander, clad in skins."

The predicate verb is completed by the object "severity," thus forming the complex predicate, "defies severity." The object is modified [or, *enlarged*] by "the," an adjective word [or, *adjective element of the first degree*], and by "of his arctic climate," an adjective phrase [or, *adjective element of the second degree*].

The grammatical predicate is modified [or, *enlarged*] by "boldly," an adverbial word [or, *adverbial element of the first degree*]. The logical predicate is "boldly defies the severity of his arctic climate."

NOTE.—The alternate forms of expression given in brackets may be used if preferred; and when the various synonymous technical terms are thoroughly understood, entire freedom of statement may advantageously be permitted.

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2. *This misfortune will certainly make the poor man miserable for life.*

This is a simple declarative sentence. The grammatical subject is "misfortune;" the grammatical predicate, "will make."

The grammatical subject is modified by "this," an adjective word—thus forming the logical subject, "this misfortune."

The simple predicate is completed by the object "man," and by the adjective complement "miserable"—thus forming the complex predicate, "will make man miserable."

The object is modified by "the" and "poor," adjective words; the adjective complement is modified by "for life," an adverbial phrase.

The grammatical predicate is modified by "certainly," an adverbial word. The logical predicate is "will certainly make the poor man miserable for life."

3. *The King of Spain ordered Fernando de Talavera, the prior of Prado, to assemble the most learned astronomers and cosmographers of the kingdom, to hold a conference with Columbus.*

This is a simple declarative sentence. The grammatical subject is "king," and the grammatical predicate, "ordered."

The grammatical subject is modified by "the," an adjective word, and by "of Spain," an adjective phrase—thus forming the logical subject, "the King of Spain."

The predicate verb is completed by the double object, "Fernando de Talavera, the prior of Prado," a substantive phrase, and by "to assemble the most learned astronomers . . . Columbus," a substantive phrase. The grammatical predicate is not modified.

The first object, "Fernando . . . Prado," consists of "Fernando de Talavera," a substantive element of the first degree (complex), modified by "the prior of Prado," an adjective phrase. The second object, "to assemble . . . Columbus," consists of "to assemble the most learned astronomers and cosmographers of the kingdom," a substantive phrase, modified by "to hold a conference with Columbus," an adverbial phrase. The logical predicate is "ordered . . . Columbus."

4. *Why stand we here idle?*

This is a simple interrogative sentence. The subject, grammatical and logical, is "we;" the grammatical predicate, "stand."

The predicate verb is completed by the predicate adjective "idle" —thus forming the complex predicate, "stand idle."

The grammatical predicate is modified by "here," an adverbial word. The logical predicate is "stand here idle."

5. *Be a hero in the strife.*

This is a simple imperative sentence. The subject, grammatical and logical, is *thou* or *you* understood; the grammatical predicate, "be."

The grammatical predicate is completed by "hero," a predicative nominative, which is modified by "a," an adjective word—thus forming the complex predicate, "be a hero."

The grammatical predicate is modified by "in the strife," an adverbial phrase. The logical predicate is "be a hero in the strife."

6. *How oft the sight of means to do ill deeds makes ill deeds done!*

This is a simple exclamative sentence. The grammatical subject is "sight;" the grammatical predicate, "makes."

The grammatical subject is modified by "the," an adjective word, and "of means to do ill deeds," an adjective phrase.

The simple predicate is completed by the object "deeds," and by "done," an adjective complement which modifies the object—thus forming the predicate, "makes deeds done." The object "deeds" is modified by "ill," an adjective word. The simple predicate is modified by "how oft," an adverbial element of the first degree. The logical predicate is "makes ill deeds done how oft."

Models for Written Analysis.

1. *Night, sable goddess, from her ebon throne,*
In rayless majesty, now stretches forth
Her leaden sceptre o'er a slumbering world.

Grammatical subject.........."Night" (*s'*).
Grammatical predicate......."stretches."
Adjunct of subject............"sable goddess" (*a'*).
Complement......................"sceptre" (*obj.'*)
Adjuncts of complement...."her" and "leaden" (*a'*).
Adjuncts of predicate........"now" and "forth" (*adv.'*); "from her ebon throne," "in rayless majesty," and "o'er a slumbering world" (*adv.''*).

2. *Him the Almighty Power*
Hurled headlong flaming from the ethereal sky,
With hideous ruin and combustion, down
To bottomless perdition.

Grammatical subject.........." Power " (*s'*).
Grammatical predicate......." hurled."
Adjuncts of subject.........." the " and "Almighty " (*a'*).
Complement....................." him " (*obj.'*).
Adjuncts of complement...." flaming from the ethereal sky " (*a''*).
Adjuncts of predicate........" headlong " (*adv.'*), " with hideous ruin and combustion " (*adv.''*), " down to bottomless perdition " (*adv.''*).

EXERCISE 51.

Analyze the following simple sentences:

A.

1. In unploughed Maine he sought the lumberer's gang.
2. Heaven from all creatures hides the book of fate.
3. Stormed at with shot and shell,
   Boldly they rode and well.
4. Shall we gather strength by irresolution and inaction?
5. The moon threw its silvery light upon the rippling waters of the lake.
6. Tell all the world thy joy.
7. Clad in a robe of everlasting snow, Mount Everest towers above all other mountain-peaks of the globe.
8. Now upon Syria's land of roses
   Softly the light of eve reposes.
9. Where are you going this summer?
10. Be not like dumb, driven cattle!
11. The mournful tidings of the death of his son filled the proud heart of the old man with the keenest anguish.
12. Forbid it, Almighty God!
13. How wonderful is sleep!
14. Harvey, the discoverer of the circulation of the blood, was an eminent English physician.
15. When shall we be stronger?
16. Vex not thou the poet's mind.
17. Did they make him master?

18. What a world of happiness their harmony foretells!
19. Between it and the garden lies
 A league of grass, washed by a slow, broad stream.
20. O, ever thus, from childhood's hour
 I've seen my fondest hopes decay.

B.

1. The master gave his scholars a lesson to learn.*
2. The ploughman homeward plods his weary way.†
3. Will it be the next week,‡ or the next year?‡
4. I will give thee a silver pound to row us o'er the ferry.§
5. Having ridden up to the spot, the enraged officer struck the unfortunate man dead ‖ with a single blow of his sword.
6. To reach Cathay, famed in the writings of Marco Polo,¶ fired the imagination of the daring navigator.
7. I saw a man with a sword.**
8. He found all his wants supplied†† by the care of his friends.
9. All but one‡‡ were killed.
10. Music's golden tongue.
11. Flattered to tears§§ this aged man and poor.‖‖
12. The scholar did nothing but read.¶¶
13. He does not*** laugh.
14. My mother gave me††† a letter to read.‡‡‡
15. What did you come here for?§§§

---

* "To learn," adjective adjunct of the object.

† "Way," cognate objective.

‡ "Week," "year," adverbial objectives equivalent to phrases.

§ "To row," etc., adverbial phrase, modifier of predicate verb.

‖ "Dead," adjective complement, adjunct of object.

¶ "Famed in the writings," etc., adjective phrase, modifier of complement of infinitive subject.

** "With a sword," adjective phrase, modifier of object.

†† "Supplied," etc., adjective complement, adjunct of object.

‡‡ "But one," adverbial phrase, modifier of predicate.

§§ "To tears," adverbial phrase (*of effect*), modifier of predicate verb.

‖‖ "Aged and poor," co-ordinate adjective adjuncts of object.

¶¶ "But read"=but (except) *to read*, adverbial phrase, modifier of predicate verb.

*** "Not" may either be considered a part of the simple predicate, or an adverbial modifier of it.

††† "Me," adverbial adjunct of predicate (indirect object).

‡‡‡ "To read," adjective adjunct of the object.

§§§ "For what," adverbial phrase, adjunct of predicate verb.

CHAPTER III.

ANALYSIS OF THE COMPLEX SENTENCE.

I. THEORY OF THE COMPLEX SENTENCE.

251.—The simple sentence and the complex sentence agree in this, that each contains one, and only one, *leading* proposition; they differ in this, that the complex sentence contains, in addition to the leading proposition, a *subordinate* one made by means of a *clause.*

The complete thought expressed by means of a complex sentence does not necessarily differ from that expressed by a simple sentence, and a simple sentence may be converted into a complex sentence by expanding an element of the first or second degree into an element of the third degree: thus—

SIMPLE SENTENCE......*At the close of the war* (phrase), Washington retired to Mount Vernon.

COMPLEX SENTENCE...*When the war closed* (clause), Washington retired to Mount Vernon.

252. Elements.—The following are the principal points in regard to the elements of the complex sentence:

I. The *subject* and the *complement* of a complex sentence may be a substantive word, phrase, or clause.

II. A *substantive* element in any part of a complex sentence may be modified by an adjective element of any degree.

III. The *predicate verb* in a complex sentence may be modified by an adverbial element of any degree.

IV. An *adjective* element in any part of a complex sentence may be modified by an adverbial element of any degree.

253. Nature of Clauses.—A clause in a complex sentence is *substantive*, *adjective*, or *adverbial*, according to its office: thus—

1. *That you cannot perform the task* is evident—[substantive clause as subject].
2. I dreamt *that I dwelt in marble halls*—[substantive clause as object].
3. You will never see the fruit of the trees *which you are planting*—[adjective clause modifying the noun "trees"].
4. He found the book *where he left it*—[adverbial clause modifying the verb "found"].
5. John is taller *than his brother is*—[adverbial clause modifying the adjective "taller"].
6. She behaves as well *as was anticipated*—[adverbial clause modifying the adverb "well"].

254. Connective.—A clause is introduced by a relative pronoun, a relative adverb, or a subordinate conjunction.

NOTES ON CLAUSE-CONNECTIVES.

I. The following classified table of connectives is given to aid the pupil in distinguishing *clauses* from principal members of a sentence.

- **I. Of Noun Clauses.**
  1. Fact—*that* (conj.), *what*, *where*, *why*, *how*, etc.
  2. Alternative—*whether . . . or*.
- **II. Of Adjective Clauses.**
  1. Person—*who*, *that*.
  2. Thing—*which*, *that*, (*such*) . . . *as*.
  3. Place—*where*, *wherein*.
  4. Time—*when*, *whereat*.
- **III. Of Adverbial Clauses.**
  - I. PLACE. *Where*, *whither*, *whence*.
  - II. TIME. *When*, *while*, *whenever*, *till*, *until*.
  - III. MANNER.
    1. Likeness—*as*, *as if*.
    2. Comparison—*as* (*much*) *as*, *than*.
    3. Effect—(*so*) *that*.
  - IV. CAUSE.
    1. Reason—*because*, *since*, *for*.
    2. Purpose—(*in order*) *that*, *lest*.
    3. Condition—*if*, *unless*.
    4. Concession—*though*.

As both substantive and adjective clauses are introduced by *who*, *when*, *where*, etc., care should be taken to note the office of the clause

before stating its class. Thus: "Tell me *where he lives*" (substantive clause); "This is the place *where he lives*" (adjective clause). An adjective clause must always have a substantive to which it is an adjunct.

II. The conjunction *that* is frequently omitted before a substantive clause used as the object of a verb: as, "I fear he will not succeed." So also the relative pronoun *that*, when in the objective case, is often omitted: as, "I have found the book you want."

III. A substantive clause introduced by the conjunction *that* is frequently found in apposition with a noun, and in such cases is to be treated as an adjective element of the third degree. Thus: "The report *that he was killed* is untrue."

IV. Adverbial clauses of comparison (introduced by *as* and *than*) are often highly elliptical — sometimes the verb being omitted, and sometimes both subject and verb; as, "He is as rich as Crœsus [is rich];" "The teacher praised you more than [he praised] me."

V. An interrogative proposition is sometimes used in such a way as to be equivalent to a conditional clause; as, "Is any merry [=if any is merry], let him sing psalms."

VI. When a substantive clause forms the subject of a sentence, the anticipative subject *it* is often employed; the substantive clause is then the real or logical subject: as, "*It* was clear *that they were on the point of quarrelling*"—

It was clear
that-they-were-on-the
point-of-quarrelling.

VII. The adverbial connectives *while*, *where*, *when*, *as*, etc., are to be treated as elements of the clause (adverbial modifiers of the predicate); but subordinate conjunctions are merely *introductory* words, and form no part of the structure of the proposition, though they serve to render it dependent.

II. Directions for Analysis.

I. After stating the *nature* of the sentence, analyze the sentence *as a whole*, taking up the principal proposition,

and treating the dependent propositions (clauses) as if they were single words. In this integral analysis designate—

1. The grammatical subject of the principal proposition.
2. The grammatical predicate of the principal proposition.
3. The modifiers of the subject.
4. The complement of the predicate.
5. The modifiers of the complement.
6. The modifiers of the predicate.

II. Analyze the clauses in their order, after the manner of the analysis for simple sentences.

III. Mention the connective.

Models for Oral Analysis.

1. *Before Time had touched his hair with silver, he had often gazed with wistful fondness towards that friendly shore on which Puritan huts were already beginning to cluster under the spreading shade of hickory and maple.*

This is a complex declarative sentence. The subject, grammatical and logical, is "he;" the predicate is "had gazed," a verb of complete predication, and consequently taking no complement.

The grammatical predicate is modified by "before Time had touched his hair with silver," an adverbial element of the third degree (or clause); by "often," an adverbial element of the first degree; and by "with wistful fondness" and "towards that friendly shore," adverbial elements of the second degree: the noun "shore" is modified by "on which Puritan huts . . . maple," an adjective element of the third degree.

Analysis of the Clauses.

a. "(*Before*) Time had touched his hair with silver" is an adverbial clause, of which the subject, grammatical and logical, is "Time," and the grammatical predicate, "had touched."

The predicate verb is completed by the object "hair," which is modified by the adjective element "his."

The grammatical predicate is modified by "with silver," an adverbial element of the second degree, thus forming the logical predicate, "had touched his hair with silver."

The connective is "before," an adverbial element.

b. "(*On which*) Puritan huts were already beginning to cluster under the spreading shade of hickory and maple" is an adjective clause, of which the grammatical subject is "huts." and the grammatical predicate "were beginning."

The grammatical subject is modified by "Puritan," an adjective element of the first degree.

The predicate verb is completed by the object "to cluster . . . maple," a substantive element of the second degree, consisting of the infinitive "to cluster," modified by "under the shade of hickory and maple," an adverbial element of the second degree.

The grammatical predicate is modified by "already," an adverbial element of the first degree. The logical predicate is "had often gazed . . . maple."

The connective is "on which," an adjective-phrase relative.

2. *The ocean is as deep as the mountains are high.*

This is a complex declarative sentence, the principal proposition being "the ocean is as deep," and the clause, "as the mountains are high."

The grammatical subject is "ocean;" the grammatical predicate "is." The grammatical subject is modified by the adjective word "the." The grammatical predicate is modified by the adverb "as," and by the adverbial clause "as the mountains are high."

Analysis of the Clause.

"As the mountains are high."

The logical subject is "the mountains;" the grammatical predicate is "are," completed by "high," a predicate adjective, and modified by "as," an adverbial adjunct—thus forming the logical predicate, "as are high."

Model for Written Analysis.

A reader unacquainted with the real nature of a classical education will probably undervalue it when he sees that so large a portion of time is devoted to the study of a few ancient authors, whose works seem to have no direct bearing on the studies and duties of our own generation.

Grammatical subject......"reader."

Grammatical predicate..."will undervalue."

Adjuncts of subject........ { "A" (*a'*). "unacquainted with the real nature of a classical education" (*a''*).

Complement.................."it" (*s'*).

Adjuncts of predicate....."probably" (*adv.'*).
["when he sees . . . generation" (*adv.'''*)] **A.**

Analysis of **A.**

"(When) he sees . . . generation" (*adv.'''*, adjunct of predicate).

Grammatical subject......"he."

Grammatical predicate..."sees."

Complement..................["that so large a portion . . . generation" (*s''*)] **B.**

Adjunct of predicate......"when" (*adv.'*).

Analysis of **B.**

"(That) so large a portion . . . generation" (*s'''*, obj. and pred. of A).

Grammatical subject......"portion."

Grammatical predicate..."is devoted."

Adjuncts of subject........ { "so large" (*a'*). "a" (*a'*). "of time" (*a''*).

Adjuncts of predicate....."to the study of a few ancient authors (*adv.''*) [whose works seem . . . generation" (*a'''*)] **C.**

Analysis of **C.**

"Whose works seem . . . generation" (a''', adjunct of "authors").

Grammatical subject......"works."

Grammatical predicate..."seem."

Adjuncts of subject........"whose" (a').

Complement..................."to have" (a').

Complement of compl....."bearing" (s').

Adjuncts of second compl.
- "no" (a').
- "direct" (a').
- "on the studies and duties of our generation" (a'').

EXERCISE 52.

Analyze the following complex sentences:

A.

1. The rose that all are praising is not the rose for me.
2. When we go forth in the morning we lay a moulding hand upon our destiny.
3. Whilst light and colors rise and fly,
Lives Newton's deathless memory.
4. The boy stood on the burning deck
Whence all but him had fled.
5. When he was a boy, Franklin, who afterwards became a distinguished statesman and philosopher, learned his trade in the printing-office of his brother, who published a paper in Boston.
6. He that fights and runs away
May live to fight another day.
7. Go into Turkey, where the pachas will tell you that the Turkish government is the most perfect in the world.
8. The Dutch florist who sells tulips for their weight in gold laughs at the antiquary who pays a great price for a rusty lamp.
9. When I look upon the tombs of the great, every emotion of envy dies in me.
10. We must not think the life of a man begins when he can feed himself.
11. Tell me not in mournful numbers
Life is but an empty dream!

12. When, in the course of human events, it becomes necessary for one people to dissolve the political bands which have connected them with another, and to assume, among the powers of the earth, the separate and equal station to which the laws of nature and of nature's God entitle them, a decent respect to the opinions of mankind requires that they should declare the causes which impel them to the separation.

B.

1. I do not admire such books as he writes.*
2. It is only by the fresh feelings of the heart that mankind can be very powerfully affected.†
3. That man has been from time immemorial a right-handed animal is beyond dispute.‡
4. He is proud that he is noble.§
5. The boy ran so fast that I could not overtake him.‖
6. My Father is greater than I.¶
7. Oh! ** that I knew where I might find him!
8. The older you become,†† the wiser you should be.
9. His conduct is not such as I admire.‡‡
10. See, here is a bower
    Of eglantine with honeysuckles woven,
    Where not a spark§§ of prying light creeps in.
11. The lamb thy riot doomed to bleed to-day,
    Had he‖‖ thy reason, would he skip and play?
12. 'Tis¶¶ better to have loved and lost
    Than never to have loved at all.

---

* "As he writes," adjective clause, adjunct of "books," and correlative with "such."

† "That mankind . . . affected," substantive clause in apposition with "it." "Is"=exists (complete verb).

‡ "Beyond dispute" (*a''*), complement of "is."

§ "That he is noble" (*adv.'''*), adjunct of predicate (reason).

‖ "That I could . . . him" (*adv.'''*), modifier of adverb "fast."

¶ Supply *am.*

** Supply a verb: as, *I wish.*

†† "The older," etc. (*adv.'''*), modifying verb of principal clause, "should be."

‡‡ "As I admire" (*a'''*), complement and co-ordinate with "such." "As" has the office of a relative pronoun (*s'*), and is the object of "admire."

§§ "Where not a spark," etc. (*a'''*), adjunct of "bower."

‖‖ "He," pleonastic subject; omit in analysis.

¶¶ "It" (in *'tis*), anticipative subject; logical subject, "to have loved and lost."

CHAPTER IV.

ANALYSIS OF THE COMPOUND SENTENCE.

I. Theory of the Compound Sentence.

255. The propositions in a compound sentence must be co-ordinate (that is, of the same rank) and connected by co-ordinate conjunctions, expressed or understood.

256. Members.—The propositions in a compound sentence are called *members*. These may be two or more simple sentences, or a simple and one or more complex sentences, or any combination of simple and of complex sentences, or of both.

I. Whatever the *constituent elements* of the members of a compound sentence may be, these *members* can noways be dependent on one another; for equality of rank in its members is the test of a compound sentence.

II. When a member of a compound sentence is a simple sentence, it may be called a *simple member;* when a complex sentence, a *complex member.*

257. Abridged Compounds.—When co-ordinate propositions have the same subject or predicate (or even the same complement, or the same modifier of the subject or of the predicate verb), the common element may be omitted; and in this case the compound sentence is called a *contracted* compound sentence. Thus—

1. God sustains and [God] governs the world—[ellipsis of common subject].

2. He loved not wisely, but [he loved] too well—[ellipsis of common predicate].
3. You advance slowly but [you advance] surely—[ellipsis of common subject and predicate, "you advance"].
4. With every effort, with every breath, and with every motion—voluntary or involuntary—a part of the muscular substance becomes dead, separates from the living part, combines with the remaining portions of inhaled oxygen, and is removed.

In this sentence are four predicates, having only one subject, but three distinct modifications of these predicates. To express the entire meaning of the sentence in separate propositions, we should have first to repeat the subject with each predicate, making four simple sentences, and then to repeat each of those sentences with each of the modifications—thus making twelve propositions.

II. Method of Analysis.

258.—As the members of a compound sentence are either simple or complex, the analysis of a compound sentence is accomplished by the analysis of its members, according to the models for the analysis of simple and of complex sentences.

NOTES ON THE COMPOUND SENTENCE.

I. The following table of the co-ordinative connectives may aid in distinguishing the special nature of the connection between two or among more than two members of a compound sentence.

Copulative	And, also, likewise, again, besides. Moreover, further, furthermore. Not only... but, then, too (following another word).
Disjunctive	Either... or. Neither... nor, nor (in the sense of *and not*). Otherwise, else.
Adversative	But, on the other hand, but then. Only, nevertheless, at the same time. However, notwithstanding. On the one hand, on the other hand, conversely. Yet, still, for all that.
Illative	Therefore, thereupon, wherefore. Accordingly, consequently. Hence, whence, so then, and so. For, thus.

II. In regard to the co-ordinative conjunction, it is enough to state that it is a connective; it does not enter into the construction of the members which it connects.

REVIEW EXERCISE IN ANALYSIS.

Analyze the following sentences:

1. Life is real.—*Longfellow.*
2. The grave is not its goal.—*Longfellow.*
3. If Hannibal had not wintered at Capua, by which circumstance his troops were enervated, but, on the contrary, after the battle of Cannæ, had proceeded to Rome, it is not improbable that the great city would have fallen.—*Gibbon.*
4. Time but the impression deeper makes,
   As streams their channels deeper wear.—*Burns.*
5. Gayly chattering to the clattering
   Of the brown nuts downward pattering
   Leap the squirrels red and gray.—*Whittier.*
6. The long-remembered beggar was his guest.—*Goldsmith.*
7. All that I have, and all that I am, and all that I hope, in this life, I am now ready here to stake upon it; and I leave off as I began, that, live or die, survive or perish, I am for the Declaration.—*Webster.*
8. The evil that men do lives after them;
   The good is oft interred with their bones.—*Shakspeare.*
9. Toiling, rejoicing, sorrowing, onward through life he goes.—*Longfellow.*
10. In such a cause I grant
    An English poet's privilege to rant.—*Pope.*
11. Hence loathed melancholy
    Of Cerberus and blackest midnight born,
    In Stygian cave forlorn,
    'Mongst horrid shapes, and shrieks and sights unholy.—*Milton.*
12. We do not, indeed, expect all men to be philosophers or statesmen, but we confidently trust, and our expectation of the duration of our system of government rests on that trust, that by the diffusion of general knowledge, and good and virtuous sentiments, the political fabric may be secure, as well against open violence and overthrow as against that slow but sure undermining of licentiousness.—*Webster.*
13. If we confine our view to the globe we inhabit, it must be allowed that chemistry and geology are the two sciences which not only offer the fairest promise, but already contain the largest generalizations.—*Buckle.*
14. Better to reign in hell than serve in heaven.—*Milton.*

15. Where are the flowers, the fair young flowers, that lately sprung and stood
In brighter light and softer airs, a beauteous sisterhood?—*Bryant.*

16. Here rests his head upon the lap of earth,
A youth to fortune and to fame unknown.—*Gray.*

17. Further observation and experience have given me a different idea of this feathered voluptuary, which I will venture to impart, for the benefit of my young readers who may regard him with the same unqualified envy and admiration which I once indulged.—*Washington Irving.*

18. All nature is but art unknown to thee;
All chance, direction which thou canst not see;
All discord, harmony not understood;
All partial evil, universal good.—*Pope.*

19. That moss-covered vessel I hail as a treasure;
For often, at noon, when returned from the field,
I found it the source of an exquisite pleasure,
The purest and sweetest that nature can yield.—*Woodworth.*

20. Now came still evening on, and twilight gray
Had in her sober livery all things clad.—*Milton.*

21. On the cross beam under the Old South bell
The nest of a pigeon is builded well.
In summer and winter that bird is there,
Out and in with the morning air.
I love to see him track the street,
With his wary eye and active feet;
And I often watch him as he springs,
Circling the steeple with easy wings,
Till across the dial his shade has passed,
And the belfry edge is gained at last.—*Willis.*

22. There is a land, of every land the pride,
Beloved of heaven o'er all the world beside.—*Montgomery.*

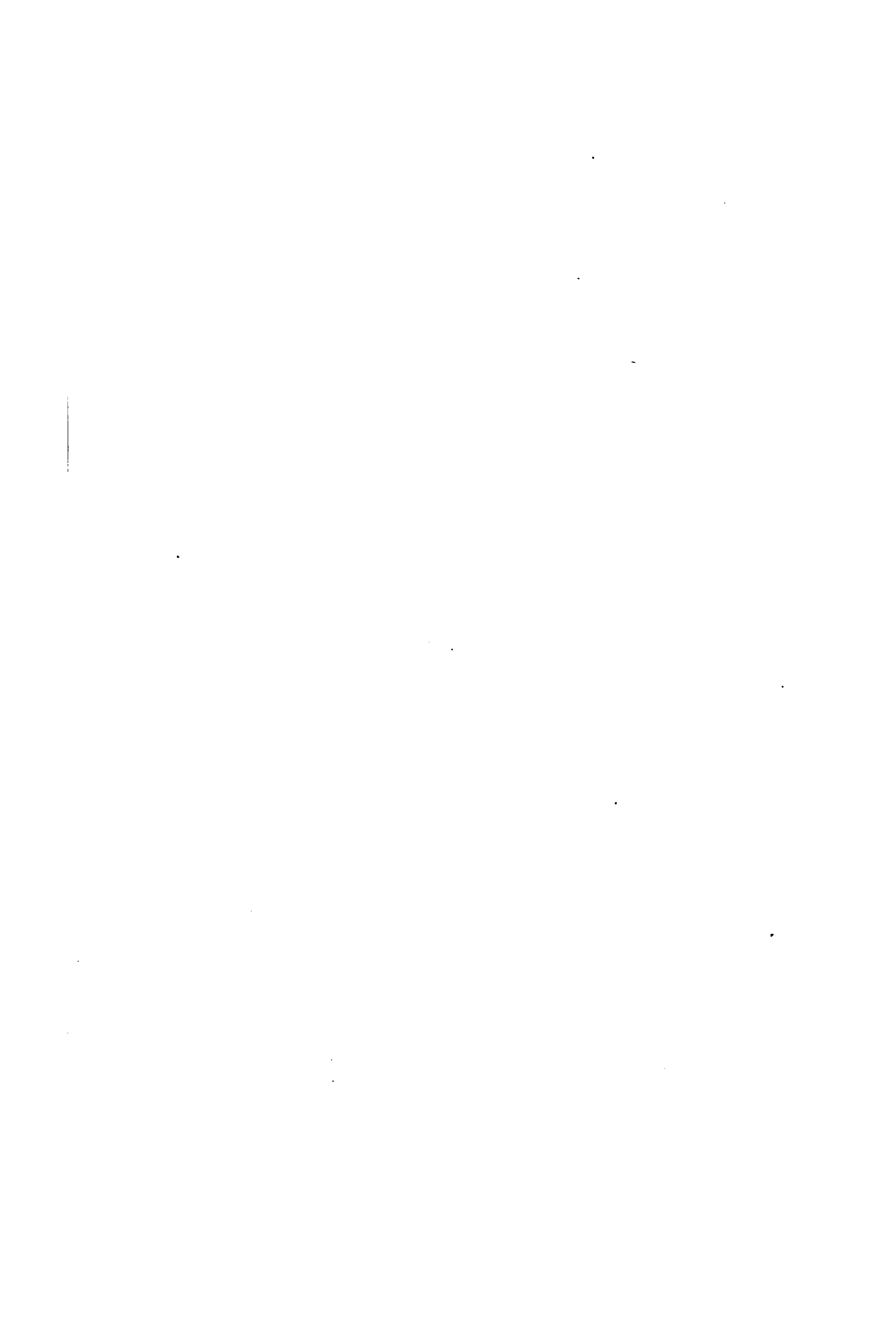
23. Now leave complaining and begin your tea.—*Pope.*

24. This is the forest primeval. The murmuring pines and the hemlock
Bearded with moss, and in garments green, indistinct in the twilight,
Stand like Druids of old with voices sad and prophetic,
Stand like harpers hoar, with beards that rest on their bosoms.
—*Longfellow.*

25. On a sudden, open fly
With impetuous recoil and jarring sounds
The infernal doors; and on their hinges grate
Harsh thunder.—*Milton.*

26. In her ear he whispers gayly,
"If my heart by signs can tell,
Maiden, I have watched thee daily,
And I think thou lov'st me well."—*Tennyson.*

27. We next hear of him, with myriads of his kind, banqueting among the reeds of the Delaware, and grown corpulent with good-feeding. He has changed his name in travelling. Boblincon no more—he is the reed-bird now, the much-sought-for titbit of Pennsylvania epicures, the rival in unlucky fame of the ortolan! Wherever he goes, pop! pop! pop!—every rusty firelock in the country is blazing away. He sees his companions falling by thousands around him. Does he take warning and reform? Alas! not he. Incorrigible epicure! again he wings his flight. The rice swamps of the South invite him. He gorges himself among them almost to bursting; he can scarcely fly for corpulency. He has once more changed his name, and is now the famous rice-bird of the Carolinas. Last stage of his career: behold him spitted, with dozens of his corpulent companions, and served up, a vaunted dish, on the table of some Southern gastronome.—*Washington Irving.*



APPENDIX.

A.

THE NOUN.

I. NOTES ON NUMBER.

[Grammar, pages 11–14.]

1. **The Inflection -s, -es.**—In Anglo-Saxon, or the oldest English, there were several plural suffixes, as, **-as**, **-an**, **-a**, **-u**: thus, *stan-as*, stones; *steorr-an*, stars; *hand-a*, hands; *lim-u*, limbs. After the conquest of England by the Norman French in the 11th century, most of these terminations gradually dropped out of the language, and **-as**, changed to **-es**, and in many cases to **-s**, became the ordinary sign of plurality. Hence our plural inflection **-s** is a shortened form of the Anglo-Saxon **-as**; thus the plural of *smith* was first *smith-as*, then *smith-es*, and finally *smiths*.

2. **Older Inflections.** — Though we are in the habit of speaking of the plural in **-s** or **-es** as the *regular* plural, it should not be forgotten that there were, in early English, various other inflections of the plural which were quite as much used as **-es**, and which were therefore quite as regular. Thus—

Ox, plural *oxen* (Anglo-Saxon *oxa*, plural *ox-an*), furnishes an example of one of the older and very common modes of forming the plural, namely, by the suffix **-an**, afterwards changed to **-en**.

Child takes the plural form *children*. The Anglo-Saxon plural was *childru:* this became first *childre* (or *childer*), and then *children*, so that it appears to be a double plural = *childr*(*u*) + *en*.

Brethren (plural of *brother*) is an instance of the use of the suffix **-en**, together with a radical change.

3. **False Plurals.** — The *s* in *alms*, *riches*, and *eaves* is not a sign

of the plural; but these words, though really singulars, are almost always treated as plurals.

Alms is a shortened form of the Anglo-Saxon *ælmesse*, a singular noun.

Riches is derived from the French *richesse*, a singular noun.

Eaves is the modern spelling of the Old-English *efese* (or *yfes*), a singular noun.

II. NOTES ON GENDER.

[Grammar, pages 16-19.]

1. **Historical.**—It has been seen that in Anglo-Saxon nouns were classified as to gender, not by the sex of the object, but by the termination of the noun, as in Latin and Greek—that is, they had grammatical gender. Thus, nouns ending in **-dom** (as *freedom*=freedom) were masculine; those ending in **-ung** (as *gretung*=greeting) were feminine, while many ending in **-en** (as *mægden*=maiden) were neuter. During this early period of our language the articles, adjectives, and adjective pronouns had distinctive terminations of gender, and were required (as is the case in Latin, Greek, French, and German) to agree in gender with the nouns to which they belonged.

2. **Old Feminines.**—The suffix **-ster** (Anglo-Saxon **-estre**) was the feminine inflection corresponding to the masculine ending **-er** (or **-ere**): thus, *bæc-ere* (a male baker), *bæc-estre* (a female baker); so *sang-ere*, sing-er; *sang-estre*, a female singer. The substitution of the Norman-French **-ess** for the Anglo-Saxon **-ster** occurred about the 14th century.

Spinster (an unmarried woman) is an instance of the preservation of this Anglo-Saxon feminine suffix; for spin-*ster* originally meant a female spinn-*er*. After a time **-ster** ceased to be felt as a feminine ending, and merely denoted *one who;* indeed, it often denoted the masculine gender, as *tapster;* and now it is used principally as a suffix implying diminutiveness or some degree of depreciation, as in *punster*, *youngster*.

Songstress (feminine of *singer*) is an example of a double termination of the feminine gender=*song*+*str*+*ess*, the French suffix **-ess** being appended to *songster* when the Anglo-Saxon suffix **-ster** had ceased to denote the feminine gender.

Vixen (Old English *fyx-en*, the feminine of *fox*) is the solitary instance now remaining of the use of the once common feminine suffix **-en.**

3. **Masculine from Feminine.**—As a rule, the feminine is formed from the masculine; but the reverse is the case in the following words:

Widower: in Old English, *widow* was both masculine and feminine; later, it was feminine only; finally, **-er** was added to denote the masculine.

Bridegroom is formed from *bride*+Old-English *guma*, a man.

Gander is derived from *gans*, a goose.

III. NOTES ON CASE.

[Grammar, pages 20–22.]

1. **Historical.**—In the ancient languages—Latin, Greek, etc.—many inflections were used to denote the various relations of nouns to other words; and these several inflected forms were called *cases*. The Latin language had changes of form to express—

The subject of a verb—the *nominative* case: as, *urb-s*, a city.

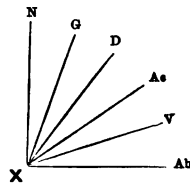
The object of a verb—the *accusative* case: as, *urb-em*, a city.

The indirect object—the *dative* case: as, *urb-i*, for or to a city.

Adverbial relations—the *ablative* case: as, *urb-e*, from, with, or by a city.

Specification or limitation—the *genitive* case (corresponding to our *possessive*): as, *urb-is*, a city's.

The term *case* (*casus*) literally means any form that "happens to occur"—any relation that *befalls* a noun. The old grammarians illustrated the changes of case by the following diagram:



The vertical line represented the nominative case (called *casus rectus*, or *upright case*). If this line, moving on a hinge at X, were to *fall* or be *bent* downward, it would assume the various *oblique* positions marked G, D, etc., to express the six Latin cases, the nominative, genitive, dative, accusative, vocative, and ablative.

The diagram gives origin to the terms *decline*, *declension* (from *de*, down, and *clinere*, to bend), the upright line being *bent* downward; and *inflect*, *inflection* (from *in*, into, and *flectere*, to bend).

2. **Early English Cases.** — English, in its earliest or Anglo-Saxon stage, was much fuller in its case-forms than is our modern English. Nouns had then five cases, answering to the nominative, genitive, dative, accusative, and ablative of Latin—though there were not always distinct forms for all these cases. The following table exhibits the inflections of the noun *man* in Latin, Anglo-Saxon, and English.

	LATIN.	ANGLO-SAXON.	ENGLISH.
	SINGULAR.	SINGULAR.	SINGULAR.
Nominative Case...	homo	man	man
Genitive..............	homin-*is*	mann-*es*	man's
Dative................	homin-*i*	m*e*n	man
Accusative...........	homin-*em*	man	man
Vocative..............	homo	man	man
Ablative..............	homin-*e*	m*e*n	man
	PLURAL.	PLURAL.	PLURAL.
Nominative...........	homin-*es*	men	men
Genitive..............	homin-*um*	mann-*a*	men's
Dative.................	homin-*ibus*	mann-*um*	men
Accusative............	homin-*es*	m*e*n	men
Vocative...............	homin-*es*	m*e*n	men
Ablative...............	homin-*ibus*	mann-*um*	men

It will be seen from this table that, while the Anglo-Saxon had a less elaborate apparatus of case-endings than the Latin, modern English has still fewer inflections than the Anglo-Saxon had—that, in fact, it has lost all the case-forms except the genitive (possessive).

3. **Use of -'s.**—The general use of the apostrophe to mark the elision of the *e* in the possessive singular is comparatively modern, and first became common about the end of the 17th century. Milton (died 1674) did not use this mark. The probable reason of its employment was to distinguish the possessive singular from the nominative plural: for example, to distinguish *birdes* (possessive singular) from *birdes* (nominative plural).

4. **Possessive Plural.**—The same explanation does not apply to the use of the apostrophe after the *s* in the possessive plural. The apostrophe here does not mark any elision, because no vowel has been dropped. The use of this conventional sign began about the 17th century, through the notion that the *s* (as in boys) was necessarily the suffix of the *nominative* plural, though in reality it was quite as much the suffix of the *possessive* plural. The use of the apostrophe after the *s* in the plural is therefore arbitrary and meaningless; still it is a convenient mode of marking case-use.

B.

THE PRONOUN.

[Grammar, pages 28–32.]

1. The **personal** pronouns in Anglo-Saxon were thus declined:*

	First Person.		*Second Person.*	
	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
Nom.	*Ic* =I,	*we* =we.	*thu* =thou,	*ge* =ye.
Gen.	*min*=mine,	*ure*=our.	*thin*=thine,	*eower*=your.
Dat.	*me* =(to) me,	*us* =(to) us.	*the* =(to) thee,	*eow* =(to) you.
Acc.	*me* =me;	*us* =us.	*the* =thee;	*eow* =you.

Third Person (or Demonstrative).

	SINGULAR.			PLURAL.
	MASCULINE.	FEMININE.	NEUTER.	MASC., FEM., NEUT.
Nom.	*he* =he,	*heo* =she,	*hit* =it.	*hi* =they.
Gen.	*his* =his,	*hire*=her,	*his* =(its).	*hira*=their.
Dat.	*him*=(to) him,	*hire*=(to) her,	*him*=(to) it.	*him* =(to) them.
Acc.	*hine*=him;	*hig* =her;	*hit* =it.	*hig* =them.

2. **My, thine, etc.**—The forms *my*, *thy* are shortened forms of *mine*, *thine*.

3. **Its.**—The possessive form *its* is a word of comparatively recent introduction (about 1640). It is not found in the English Bible (King James's version, published 1611). The place of *its* was filled by *his*, which was the possessive case of *hit* (it) as well as of *he*.

4. **Him.**—*Him* was originally the dative case, the accusative (objective) being *hine;* but this latter form was replaced by *him* as early as the 14th century. The original dative force of *him* still survives in our modern use of it as indirect object: as in "Give *me* [=to me] the book." Also in "*me*thinks" [=it appears to me]; "woe is *me*" [=to me].

5. The **relative** and interrogative pronouns in Anglo-Saxon were thus declined:

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* It should be remarked that the Anglo-Saxon pronouns of the first and second persons had, in addition to the singular and plural numbers, a *dual* number (as, *wit*=we two; *git*=ye two); but as these forms have wholly disappeared, it is needless to give their declension.

	Singular.			Plural.
	MASC., FEM.		NEUT.	MASC., NEUT.
Nom...*hwa*	=who,	*hwaet*	=what.	hwa
Gen....*hwaes*	=whose,	*hwaes*	=whose.	hwaes
Dat....*hwam*	=whom,	*hwam*	——.	hwam
Acc....hwone		hwaet	=what.	hwone
Abl.....hwi	——;	*hwi*	=why.	hwy

6. **Whose** (*hwaes*), as will be observed, was the possessive both of *who* (*hwa*) and of *what* (*hwaet*). **Which** is a compound of *wh* (in *who* and *what*) and *lic*, like; hence=*who-like* or *what-like*. The adverb **why** arose from the ablative case of *who*, *what*, and literally means *for what reason?* or, *by what cause?*

C.

THE VERB.

I. NOTES ON THE PARADIGM.

[Grammar, pages 71-74.]

1. The paradigm of the English verb given in this book (as exemplified in the conjugation of *to love*) is, substantially, that which from the time of Lindley Murray has been presented in most English grammars; and (some slight differences in nomenclature excepted) it is that which appears in the most approved grammars now in use in this country.

Though the received paradigm is not wholly satisfactory, it is probably as good as could be set forth, unless a radical change in the mode of conjugation were made.

2. The difficulty in the way of a scientific arrangement of the forms of the English verb results from the fact that two questions are yet unsettled, to wit:

(1.) Should or should not inflection be made the test in the scheme of conjugation for the in-letting our out-leaving of a verbal form?

(2.) If compound forms are to be admitted, how many shall have place in the paradigm? and how shall these forms be arranged by mood and tense?

If only the simple and the inflected forms are to have place in the conjugation of the verb (a view taken by many modern English writers on English grammar), the paradigm will be very brief. Thus, let a line (———) stand for the root form, and we have the following scheme of a regular verb:

INDICATIVE PRESENT.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1. ———	1. ———
2. ——— -st (*or* -est)	2. ———
3. ——— -s (*or* -es)	3. ———

INDICATIVE PAST.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1. ——— -ed	1. ——— -ed
2. ——— -ed + -st (*or* -est)	2. ——— -ed
3. ——— -ed	3. ——— -ed

SUBJUNCTIVE PRESENT.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1. (*if*) ———	1. ———
2. (*if*) ———	2. ———
3. (*if*) ———	3. ———

SUBJUNCTIVE PAST.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1. ——— -ed	1. ——— -ed
2. ——— -ed	2. ——— -ed
3. ——— -ed	3. ——— -ed

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Gerund:	——— -ing
Present Participle:	——— -ing
Past Participle:	——— -ed

Thus, confining the conjugation to forms simple and inflected,* it appears:

(1.) That a verb may be parsed as in one or other of *three moods* and *two tenses.*

(2.) That the sole inflections of the regular English verb, in both voices, are *four*, to wit: *-st* (or *-est*), *-s* (or *-es*), *-ed*, and *-ing*.

3. As against the theory of restricting the mood and tense forms to the simple and inflected parts, and as showing that *some* compound forms should be admitted into the conjugation, the following considerations may be cited:

(1.) Many of the compound tenses, or verb-phrases, express a meaning not made up of the combined original meanings of their component parts, but a new meaning: so that the constituent elements of such phrases cannot properly be treated separately. Thus, in the sentence

"The river *will overflow* its banks to-morrow,"

* In thus conjugating a verb, component parts of a tense-form or a mood-form are parsed separately. Thus—

"He shall be called John."

"Shall," verb transitive, indicative mood, present tense, third person singular.

"Be," verb intransitive, infinitive present.

"Called," past participle of the verb *to call.*

the verb-phrase "will overflow" (future tense) is made up of the third person singular of the verb *to will*, and the infinitive "[to] overflow." But the sense of the statement is not that the river *wills* or determines to overflow—the verb merely predicates the *future* action of overflowing.* So "I have written a letter" is resolvable into "I have [or possess] a letter written;" but that is not now the signification conveyed by the sentence.

The same argument applies to the compounds *may*, *can*, *would*, *should*, etc., with infinitives, forming the potential mood—a mood that some grammarians would exclude from the paradigm. It seems to be a sufficient ground for the admission of this mood into the conjugation of the English verb that these verb-phrases have meanings distinct from the signification of their elements, and that they denote modes of assertion corresponding to those which in inflected languages are expressed by modifications of the verb-root.

(2.) Many, perhaps all, of the verb *inflections* in those languages that exhibit the grammatical forms of the verb by means of suffixes were originally separate words, which afterwards coalesced with the root, just as we find in *loved* (=love-did). Thus the French *aimerai* (future tense) is composed of the infinitive *aimer* (to love), and *ai* (I have)= I *have to love*, that is, I *shall love*. If, then, we take into consideration that the English auxiliaries have for the most part lost their original meaning as independent words, and become mere formative elements, and that our verb-phrases serve to express the various modes and conditions of assertion which in the classical languages are denoted by tense and mood inflections, there seems to be sufficient reason for giving these compound forms a place in the conjugation.

II. LIST OF IRREGULAR VERBS.

Explanation.—When a verb has a past or past participle, or both, of the regular conjugation, this fact is indicated by placing *-ed* after the form or forms. This *-ed* is to be suffixed *to the root*, care being taken to observe the rule of spelling for derivative words.

When the **-ed** is in heavy type it indicates that the **-ed** form is preferable.

The forms in *italics* are either out of use, seldom used, or not used by the best authors.

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* Mulligan: *Structure of the English Language.*

PRESENT.	PAST.	PAST PARTICIPLE.
abide	abode	abode
arise	arose	arisen
awake	awoke, *-ed*	awaked
be *or* am	was	been
bear (*to bring forth*)	bore, *bare*	born
bear (*to carry*)	bore, bare	borne
beat	beat	beaten, beat
begin	began	begun
behold	beheld	beheld
belay	belaid, *-ed*	belaid, *-ed*
bend	bent, -ed	bent, -ed
bet	bet, -ed	bet, -ed
bereave	bereft	bereft, -ed
beseech	besought	besought
bid	bid, bade	bidden, bid
bind	bound	bound
bite	bit	bitten, bit
bleed	bled	bled
blend	blent, -ed	blent, -ed
bless	blest, -ed	blest, -ed
blow	blew	blown
break	broke, *brake*	broken, *broke*
breed	bred	bred
bring	brought	brought
build	built, -ed	built, -ed
burn	burnt, -ed	burnt, -ed
burst	burst	burst
buy	bought	bought
cast	cast	cast
catch	caught, *-ed*	caught, *-ed*
chide	chid, *chode*	chidden, *chid*
choose	chose	chosen
cleave (*to adhere*)	cleaved, *clave*	cleaved
cleave (*to split*)	clove, cleft, *clave*	cleft, *cloven*
climb	climbed, *clomb*	climbed
cling	clung	clung
clothe	clothed, *clad*	clad, -ed
come	came	come
cost	cost	cost
creep	crept	crept

PRESENT.	PAST.	PAST PARTICIPLE.
crow	crew, -**ed**	crowed
cut	cut	cut
dare (*to venture*)	durst, -**ed**	dared
deal	dealt, -*ed*	dealt, -*ed*
dig	dug, -*ed*	dug, -ed
do	did	done
draw	drew	drawn
dream	dreamt, -**ed**	dreamt, -**ed**
dress	drest, -**ed**	drest, -**ed**
drink	drank, *drunk*	drunk, *drunken*
drive	drove	driven
dwell	dwelt, -ed	dwelt, -ed
eat	ate, *eat*	eaten, *eat*
fall	fell	fallen
feed	fed	fed
feel	felt	felt
fight	fought	fought
find	found	found
flee	fled	fled
fling	flung	flung
fly	flew	flown
forbear	forbore	forborne
forget	forgot	forgotten, forgot
forsake	forsook	forsaken
freeze	froze	frozen
get	got	got, gotten
gild	gilt, -ed	gilt, -ed
gird	girt, -ed	girt, -ed
give	gave	given
go	went	gone
grave	graved	graven, -ed
grind	ground	ground
grow	grew	grown
hang*	hung	hung
have	had	had
hear	heard	heard
heave	hove, -**ed**	hoven, -**ed**
hew	hewed	hewn, -ed

* *Hang*, to take life by hanging, is *regular*.

PRESENT.	PAST.	PAST PARTICIPLE.
hide	hid	hidden, hid
hit	hit	hit
hold	held	held, *holden*
hurt	hurt	hurt
keep	kept	kept
kneel	knelt, -ed	knelt, -ed
knit	knit, -ed	knit, -ed
know	knew	known
lade	laded	laded, laden
lay	laid	laid
lead	led	led
leap	lĕapt, -ed	lĕapt, -ed
learn	learnt, -ed	learnt, -ed
leave	left	left
lend	lent	lent
let	let	let
lie (*to recline*)	lay	lain
light	lit, -ed	lit, -ed
lose	lost	lost
make	made	made
mean	meant	meant
meet	met	met
mow	mowed	mown, -ed
pass	past, -ed	past, -ed
pay	paid	paid
pen (*to enclose*)	pent, -ed	pent, -ed
prove	proved	proven, -ed
put	put	put
quit	quit, -ed	quit, -ed
rap	rapt, -ed	rapt, -ed
read	rĕad	rĕad
rend	rent	rent
rid	rid	rid
ride	rode, *rid*	ridden, *rid*
ring	rang, *rung*	rung
rise	rose	risen
rive	rived	riven, -ed
run	ran, *run*	run
saw	sawed	sawn, -ed
say	said	said

PRESENT.	PAST.	PAST PARTICIPLE.
see	saw	seen
seek	sought	sought
seethe	sod, -ed	sodden, -ed
sell	sold	sold
send	sent	sent
set	set	set
shake	shook	shaken
shape	shaped	*shapen*, -ed
shave	shaved	shaven, -ed
shear	sheared, *shore*	shorn, -ed
shed	shed	shed
shine	shone, -ed	shone, -ed
shoe	shod	shod
shoot	shot	shot
show	showed	shown, -ed
shred	shred	shred
shrink	shrank, *shrunk*	shrunk, shrunken
shut	shut	shut
sing	sang, *sung*	sung
sink	sank, *sunk*	sunk
sit	sat	sat
slay	slew	slain
sleep	slept	slept
slide	slid	slidden, slid
sling	slung, *slang*	slung
slink	slunk, *slank*	slunk
slit	slit, -ed	slit, -ed
smell	smelt, -ed	smelt, -ed
smite	smote	smitten, *smit*
sow	sowed	sown, -ed
speak	spoke, *spake*	spoken
speed	sped, -ed	sped, -ed
spell	spelt, -ed	spelt, -ed
spend	spent	spent
spill	spilt, -ed	spilt, -ed
spin	spun, *span*	spun
spit	spit, *spat*	spit
split	split, *-ed*	split, *-ed*
spoil	spoilt, -ed	spoilt, -ed
spread	spread	spread

PRESENT.	PAST.	PAST PARTICIPLE.
spring	sprang, *sprung*	sprung
stand	stood	stood
stave	stove, -ed	stove, -ed
stay	staid, -ed	staid, -ed
steal	stole	stolen
stick	stuck	stuck
sting	stung	stung
stride	strode, *strid*	stridden
strike	struck	struck, stricken
string	strung	strung
strive	strove	striven
strow, strew	strowed, *strewed*	strown, strewn
swear	swore, *sware*	sworn
sweat	sweat, -ed	sweat, -ed
sweep	swept	swept
swell	swelled	swollen, -ed
swim	swam, *swum*	swum
swing	swung	swung
take	took	taken
teach	taught	taught
tear	tore, *tare*	torn
tell	told	told
think	thought	thought
thrive	throve, -ed	thriven, -ed
throw	threw	thrown
thrust	thrust	thrust
tread	trod	trodden, trod
wake	woke, -ed	woke, -ed
wax	waxed	waxen, -ed
wear	wore	worn
weave	wove	woven
wed	wed, -ed	wed, -ed
weep	wept	wept
wet	wet, -ed	wet, -ed
whet	whet, -ed	whet, -ed
win	won	won
wind	wound, -ed	wound
work	wrought, -ed	wrought, -ed
wring	wrung	wrung
write	wrote, *writ*	written

III. NOTES ON THE IRREGULAR VERBS.

1. The definition usually given of irregular verbs is founded on a negation—they do *not* form their past and past participle by the addition of **-ed** to the root. But this class of verbs has also a *positive* characteristic: all verbs properly called irregular form (or once formed) their past tense by a modification of the root-vowel: as, *write, wrote; hold, held; do, did.* Moreover, the past participle of all verbs of this class was originally formed by the addition of the suffix **-en**: as, *give, giv-en; took, tak-en* — though this inflection has now vanished from many verbs.

2. **Disguised Regulars.**—For ordinary purposes, and for parsing, the common classification of verbs as regular or irregular, according as they do or do not form their past and past participle by adding **-ed**, is sufficient; but the classification is in some respects superficial. For if we consider as not regular all verbs that do not form their past and past participle by the addition of **-ed**, a considerable number of verbs will be thrown out of the class of verbs "regular" which are not to be classified as "irregular verbs," taking as the test of *irregularity* the distinguishing marks given above: as, bless, *blest;* build, *built.*

Verbs of this kind, though usually classed as irregular, belong strictly speaking to the class of regular verbs, since the irregularities they present are merely a matter of *euphony.* These may be called *disguised regulars.** And among them we note the following varieties:

(1.) In some verbs in which **-ed** makes no additional syllable, **-t** is substituted for **-ed**, especially in the past participle. This occurs in the following cases:

> (*a*) When *-ed* is sounded like *t:* as, bless, blessed (pronounced blest); past participle, *blest.*
> (*b*) After *n* or *l:* as, learn, (learned) *learnt;* dwell, *dwelt.*

(2.) In some verbs whose root ends in *d*, preceded by *l*, *n*, or *r*, the final **-d** is simply changed to **-t**: as, build, (builded) *built;* send, *sent.*

(3.) Some verbs shorten the root vowel and add **-d** or **-t**: as, flee, *fled;* feel, *felt.*

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* It may be a useful distinction, in speaking of verbs irregular in the ordinary sense, to designate them by a name adopted by many modern grammarians, namely, verbs of the *old*, or *strong*, conjugation, and to call verbs of the *-ed* class verbs of the *new*, or *weak*, conjugation.

(4). Some verbs ending in *d* or *t* shorten the root vowel, but take no addition: as, feed, *fed;* lead, *led.**

(5.) Some verbs ending in *d* or *t* make no change whatever; as, cut, cut, cut.

Some verbs, such as—

leave, *left;*	buy, *bought;*
lose, *lost;*	sell, *sold;*
teach, *taught;*	tell, *told;*

and others of the like sort, though presenting marked departures from the type of the so-called regular verb, nevertheless belong originally to that conjugation, for the reason that the **-ed** inflection is, substantially, found in them.

3. **Strictly Irregular.**—Verbs belonging, in the strict sense, to the irregular, old, or strong conjugation, have, in the text, been subdivided into the following classes:

CLASS 1.—Root-vowel modified for past, and *-en* or *-n* added for participle: as—

break	broke	broken

CLASS 2.—Root-vowel modified for past, and no suffix in participle: as—

begin	began	begun

CLASS 3.—Regular in past; irregular in participle: as—

show	showed	shown

4. **Go — went — gone.** — The past *went* is not formed from the root *go*, but is a contraction of *wended*, the past tense of the Anglo-Saxon verb *wendan*, to wend or go: thus, "He *went* his way"=He *wended* his way.

5. **Have—had—had.**—The past *had* is a contraction of the Anglo-Saxon *haefde* or *haefed* (past tense of *habban*, to have), and hence is equivalent to *haved;* accordingly, this verb belongs properly to the regular, or weak, conjugation.

6. **Make—made—made.**—*Made* is a contraction of the Anglo-Saxon *macode* (=maked), and the past participle is a contracted form of *ge-macod;* so that "make" is originally a regular verb.

7. **Double forms.**—In the list on pages 245–249 will be found a considerable number of verbs of double form (redundant verbs), that is,

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* Forms like *lead*, *led* are accounted for as follows: The Anglo-Saxon verb was *lǣde* (I lead), led*de* (I led). As the Anglo-Saxon passed into modern English the final *e* ceased to be pronounced, and with it the additional *d* disappeared as useless.—Bain: *English Grammar.*

verbs that make their past and participle both regularly and irregularly: as—

thrive,	*thrived*, or *throve*,	*thrived*, or *thriven*;
dig,	*digged*, or *dug*,	*digged*, or *dug*.

Of such pairs the irregular form is the older; but in the progress of language there is a constant tendency for the regular to displace the irregular form. Many verbs that are now conjugated solely in the regular way were at first irregular; then a secondary (regular) form appeared; and this at last wholly displaced the irregular form. Thus the now regular verb *to heat* had formerly *het* for its past tense; and *to clothe* had *clad* for its past tense, and *yclad* for its past participle.

New verbs introduced into our language are always conjugated in the regular manner: as, *telegraph*, *telegraphed*, *telegraphed*.

8. **Drank or drunk, etc.**—A considerable number of verbs with two irregular forms of the past are found. The present tendency of the language is to give the preference to the forms *drank*, *sprang*, *began*, etc., for the past, and use *drunk*, *sprung*, *begun*, etc., solely as past participles.

ORIGIN OF THE INFINITIVE WITH "TO."

To is not found in Anglo-Saxon before the nominative and accusative of the infinitive, and even in modern English it is not inserted after the following verbs: *may*, *can*, *shall*, *will*, *dare*, *let*, *bid*, *make*, *must*, *see*, *hear*, *feel*, *do*, *need*, and *have*. The cause of its later appearance may be thus explained. In Anglo-Saxon the infinitive was declined as follows:

Nominative and accusative, *writ-an*, to write.
Dative, *to writ-ann-e*, for writing.

When, in later times, the inflectional endings were lost, the origin of the separate forms *write* and *to write* was forgotten, and the preposition was inaccurately applied to *all* cases of the infinitive. The dative *to writ-ann-e*, by the omission of the case-ending, appears as *to writ-an*, and the nominative and accusative *writ-an*, in consequence of this accidental resemblance, improperly received the preposition *to*.

The nominative and accusative *writ-an* afterwards assumed the forms *writ-en*, *writ-in*, and finally *writ-ing*, and thus arose the form called the *gerund*. Hence the identity of meaning in *writing* and *to write*.

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[☞ The numbers indicate the pages.]

THE END.

